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FOOD RESOURCES OF SOUTHERN FRANCE

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Description

An evaluation of the wartime productive capabilities of Southern-French agriculture; of the problems of food administration and distribution which will be encountered in the event of occupation; and of the probable requirements of the area for imports of foodstuffs and agricultural supplies; together with recommendations for a United Nations' food program in the area.

15 February 1944

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

62931

Page

Summary.. iv

Foreword... xiv

I. General Characteristics........................... 1

- A. Land Use.. 1
- B. Land Tenure....................................... 1
- C. Types of Farming.................................. 4
  - 1. Grazing Economy................................ 4
  - 2. Mixed Farming.................................. 4
  - 3. Specialty-crop Areas........................... 4
- D. Seeding and Harvesting Periods.................... 5

II. Food Production.................................. 7

- A. Input... 7
  - 1. Manpower....................................... 7
  - 2. Seeds.. 8
  - 3. Fertilizers and Sprays......................... 14
  - 4. Farm Machinery................................. 20
  - 5. Feed... 24
  - 6. Packaging Materials............................ 25
- B. Output.. 26
  - 1. General.. 26
  - 2. Crop Production................................ 27
    - a. Grains...................................... 27
    - b. Tuber Crops................................. 31
    - c. Sugar Beets................................. 31
    - d. Vegetables.................................. 31
    - e. Fresh Fruits................................ 32
    - f. Wine.. 32
    - g. Vegetable Oils.............................. 33
  - 3. Livestock and Livestock Products............... 35
    - a. Livestock Numbers........................... 35
    - b. Meat Production............................. 38
    - c. Dairy Products.............................. 41
  - 4. Fats and Oils.................................. 45
  - 5. Eggs... 47
  - 6. Seafish.. 47

III. Food Balance.................................... 49

- A. Supplies Available for Human Consumption (or Export)........................... 49
- B. Rural Food Consumption............................ 53
- C. Urban Food Consumption and Food Balance........... 57
- D. Possible Urban Diet............................... 65
- E. Emergency Relief Requirements..................... 69

IV. Facilities for Processing and Distribution......... 72

- A. Storage Facilities.............................. 72
- B. Processing...................................... 72
- C. Transportation.................................. 74
- D. Wholesale and Retail Trade...................... 74
- E. Agricultural Cooperatives....................... 76

V. Food Administration................................ 78

- A. The Controlling Bodies.......................... 78
  - 1. The Corporative Organization of Agriculture... 78
  - 2. The Dual Setup: Government and Food Boards... 80
  - 3. The Governmental Structure.................. 83
  - 4. The Food Boards............................. 87
    - a. Existing Types of Food Boards............. 88
    - b. Central Organization of Food Boards........ 92
    - c. Regional and Departmental Levels of Food Boards.................................. 94
    - d. Functions of Food Boards.................. 95
- B. The Administration of Food Rationing............ 96
- C. The Administration of Food Prices............... 100
- D. Grievances...................................... 102

VI. Recommendations................................... 107

- A. Emergency Relief................................ 107
- B. Mobilization of Area Supplies................... 109
- C. Agricultural Rehabilitation..................... 116

Appendix I. The Administration of Various Important Commodities.......................... 121

- A. Cereals... 121
- B. Meat.. 124
- C. Fresh Fruits and Vegetables..................... 127
- D. Potatoes.. 129
- E. Dairy Products.................................. 132

Appendix II. The Food Boards of Vichy France........... 136

Bibliography*.. 139

MAP

Agricultural Regions of Southern France.......facing page xiv

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* Figures in parentheses in text and tables refer to the bibliography.

SUMMARY

1. Southern France is not a rich agricultural area. It produces surpluses of wine and other specialty crops, but is deficient in a number of staple foodstuffs. With about one-third of the French population, the area accounts for little more than one-fifth of the total cereal production of France, and normally imports large quantities of wheat from Northern France and from North Africa. For its sugar supply, Southern France is completely dependent on imports from the North. France as a whole, including the South, is deficient in fats and oils. Normally, about half of French requirements are provided by imports of peanuts, palm kernels, and olive oil from West and North Africa. Southern France is self-sufficient in potatoes and in livestock products, and produces fruits and vegetables in excess of requirements. Wine is the outstanding surplus crop; in normal years, more than fifty million hectoliters, or four-fifths of the total French output, are produced in the area.

2. In 1940 and 1941, French agriculture underwent an unprecedented decline, from which it is now gradually recovering. It is likely, however, that several factors will contribute to the prevention of a full recovery during the war. Among them are the shortages of fertilizer, machinery, and manpower. Furthermore, the marked reduction in supplies of consumer goods on the market and the constant threat of increased German requisitions of foodstuffs reduce the incentives for producing and marketing agricultural surpluses. In Southern France, the recovery of agricultural production was further retarded by rather severe droughts in 1941 and 1942.

3. The wartime decline in agricultural production and in imports has resulted in a marked reduction in the average level of food consumption. Nevertheless, it is estimated that after allowing for waste and seed, feed and industrial uses, losses in processing, exports to the North, and German requisitions, an average of about 2600 calories per capita per day is at present available for human consumption in the area.

4. This figure, however, conceals striking differences in the level of consumption. It is estimated that the present average diet of the seven million rural consumers is at least as good, both in quantity and in quality, as it was before the war. In spite of official attempts at rationing self-suppliers, the daily caloric intake of the average rural inhabitant may be as high as 3200 calories. This includes 500-600 calories derived from the illegal consumption of nationally rationed foodstuffs.

5. The diet of the urban inhabitant is poor by comparison: on the average, only 2100 calories per day are consumed per capita of the city population. But even this low level of consumption is unavailable to a large part of the urban population, since only 1360 calories are distributed under nationwide rations, and perhaps some 400 calories under local rations (potatoes and vegetables). The normal consumer's ration is even lower than this: it provides 1140 calories per day (plus local rations), as compared to about 1500 calories (plus local rations) distributed to heavy workers, and 1700 (plus local rations) for very heavy workers.

This minimum diet is supplemented by unrationed foodstuffs, and by rationed foodstuffs marketed through illegal channels, which altogether contribute, on the average, about 300 calories per capita per day. It should be noted, however, that these items are usually sold in the Black Market at prices which are prohibitive for the low-income groups.

6. In the event of occupation of the area by Allied forces, while Northern France is still under German rule, it will be necessary for the occupation authorities to import some basic staple foodstuffs which are at present obtained from the North. The estimated requirements of the area are based on the supposition that occupation takes place at the beginning of a new crop year, with production approximately at present levels.

It is also reasonable to assume that present levels of rural consumption will not be reduced by the occupying authorities. If an attempt at reduction were made, it would probably meet with little more success than similar efforts by the present regime.

If these assumptions are granted, it will be necessary, in order to meet present urban rations, to import 170,000 metric tons of flour (or the equivalent amount of grain), 7,000 metric tons of fats, and 115,000 metric tons of sugar, or a total of about 290,000 metric tons per annum. Except for sugar, the bulk of these requirements could probably be covered from surpluses available in French Africa. In fact, it may be practicable to increase the shipment of fats to about 100,000 metric tons (including 30,000 metric tons of fats needed for industrial uses, principally soap), which would make it possible to almost triple the present urban fats ration, which is pitifully low. With these shipments, and given a tolerably efficient distribution of the available area supplies, the diet that could be provided -- 3200 calories to the average rural inhabitant, and 2550 calories to the average urban consumer -- would be more than adequate to meet essential requirements. It would still be adequate if the proposed shipments of sugar, or even the imports of fats and oils are cut in half, or if the proposed imports of wheat or flour were reduced by one-fourth.

In making these calculations, it has been assumed that the entire domestic surpluses of cheese, eggs, milk, potatoes, vegetables, fruits, and nuts are distributed among the urban population of the area. After the liberation of Northern France, some of these surpluses will have to be shipped north, reducing the average urban caloric intake in Southern France to about 2400. On the other hand, shipments of wheat from the North could probably be resumed within less than a year of liberation.

7. If the reoccupation of Southern France is effected from beachheads along the Mediterranean shore, the liberating forces will be faced, in the initial stages, with the problem of feeding the population of an area which is extremely deficient in basic staple foodstuffs. For this period, the Allied authorities must be prepared to feed the entire urban population of six Mediterranean departments with 2000 calories a day, and also to supplement the diet of the rural population of these departments at the rate of 500 calories per capita per day. The total shipments required for this purpose amount to about 50,000 metric tons per month. As communications between rural and urban districts are restored, and as Allied beachheads are expanded into the agricultural surplus regions of the hinterland, the problem of provisioning the Mediterranean coast

will be gradually alleviated.

8. There is ample evidence that, on the whole, existing facilities for storage, processing, and distribution have been adequate to assure the regular flow of foodstuffs from the farms to urban markets. In transportation, on the other hand, real bottlenecks have developed during the war which will have to be given attention in the event of occupation.

The highly urbanized departments along the Mediterranean shore are farthest removed from surplus areas; their provisioning constitutes one of the major problems of wartime food distribution. Resumption of trade with North Africa will reduce this difficulty.

9. The administrative machinery set up by the Vichy government to control the production, collection, and distribution of food supplies is one of the least efficient war food administrations in Europe.

a. The one outstanding innovation which was introduced in this field by the Vichy regime, the "Peasants' Corporation," discharges an important economic function only on the local level. The local syndic distributes delivery quotas and producer goods among individual farmers.

b. The distribution of foodstuffs is administered by two types of agencies: the regular governmental machinery and a number of government-controlled food boards for individual commodities on which farmers, dealers, and processors are evenly represented. Generally speaking, the national program of production and distribution is determined by the government. The food boards organize deliveries and stockpiling and grant trade licenses.

c. The present organization of the Ministry for Agriculture and Food Supplies is the result of a compromise between rural and urban interests. Within the Ministry, the old staff taken over from the former Ministry for Agriculture is in charge of agricultural production, while a new General Secretariat for Food Supplies controls collection and distribution.

d. Some of the food boards, especially those for cereals, meats, and dairy products, wield wide powers over production and distribution. The preponderant influence of agricultural producers over some of these food boards has recently been reduced.

e. Consumer rationing controls the flow of supplies from the wholesaler to the consumer, with the local administration of rationing in the hands of the municipality. Each commodity is rationed specifically and rations are differentiated according to need. Most foodstuffs are rationed on a nationwide basis, but potatoes, fruits, and vegetables are subject to local control.

f. Prices of agricultural products are fixed by the Minister of Finance, or jointly by the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Agriculture, or by the prefects. These officials are advised by a central or departmental price committee.

g. The numerous leakages in the system of controls may be attributed to a variety of factors. The food delivery program is sabotaged by producers because of distrust in the government and the currency, the fear of German requisitioning, the needs of relatives and friends, and the lure of high black-market profits. Prefects, mayors, and *syndics* are often reluctant to enforce delivery quotas.

"Free" foodstuffs (not subject to compulsory delivery) and family parcels are loopholes for black-market transactions. Prefects often place the interest of their department above the national interest, and block exports of surpluses to deficiency departments. The number of ration cards outstanding seems to be greatly in excess of the population.

The rewards which would result from the use of more efficient methods of food procurement and distribution by the Allied authorities are substantial.

10. The following recommendations are made for a United Nations' food program in Southern France.

a. During an emergency period immediately following occupation, the Allied authorities must be prepared to feed the entire urban population at a 2,000 calorie level. Along the Mediterranean shore, the rural population will also require relief shipments at the rate of 500 calories per capita per day. The shipments required for emergency feeding of the population of six Mediterranean departments amount to about 50,000 metric tons per month. Care should be taken to distribute staple foods familiar to the inhabitants, with communal feeding taking an important place in the program.

b. An effort should be made immediately to restore and increase the normal flow of foodstuffs from the countryside to urban markets, and from agricultural surplus regions to deficit areas. A successful solution of this problem will greatly reduce the need for food imports.

In shaping the procurement program, the basic difficulties created by conditions of scarcity and an unstable currency have to be reconciled with our desire gradually to replace the system of forced collection by a system of voluntary exchanges. This basic policy suggests that less use be made by the liberating authorities of production and delivery quotas, and more reliance be placed on economic and political incentives. The distribution to farmers of industrial consumer goods (household and yard goods), of foodstuffs needed by farmers (flour, sugar, coffee, etc.), and of producers' goods (seeds, fertilizer, sprays, fuel, implements, and repair parts) should be tied closely to the program of food procurement. To many of the larger farmers, gold, which makes minimum demands upon shipping space, might be a welcome exchange good. The legal flow of some strategic foodstuffs from farms to urban centers may be increased by a program of subsidies and/or changes in the structure of relative prices. Direct human consumption of crops should be favored against use for fodder, and production of dairy products in preference to meat production. Bonuses for immediate delivery should be retained. Where price increases are necessary to maintain or increase production, these should be absorbed by subsidies.

To the extent to which the above incentives are effective, the quota system of compulsory deliveries will become less important as an instrument of food procurement. Nevertheless, a close check on the production and requirements of individual farms should be maintained.

The self-suppliers' rations are unenforceable and should be abolished. On the other hand, any foodstuffs over and above the food, seed, and authorized feed requirements of the producer should be made subject to collection by licensed dealers and appropriate penalties inflicted for all transactions outside controlled channels. An exception may be made for family parcels, but these should be restricted to the producer's immediate family.

c. The procurement program, to be successful, must be accompanied by a program of equitable food distribution. Price and rationing controls must be strengthened.

As long as essential foodstuffs are scarce, it is suggested that the present system of specific and differential rationing be retained. In the poorer sections of the cities, in or near factories, and in schools, communal feeding facilities should be provided throughout the occupation period. A new consumers' census should be taken as soon as practicable.

It is recommended that an effort be made at least to maintain and, if possible, to increase the rations prevailing at the time of occupation. The food imports required for this purpose are outlined under (6) above.

In addition, it is suggested that consideration be given to the shipment of morale items such as coffee, tea, and cocoa at about 50 percent of the pre-war level.

Under no circumstances, however, should rations be set which cannot be met. If there are any doubts that the rations can be met, it is preferable to set the rations initially at a low level and subsequently to raise them, rather than to proceed in the reverse fashion.

d. The economic program of the liberating forces should be widely publicized in an attempt to convince the population of the probability that formerly scarce foodstuffs and other essential living items are now becoming available.

e. Changes in the administrative structure will have to be kept to a minimum. The Corporative Organization of Agriculture may be abolished entirely without affecting production and distribution controls. Its emergency

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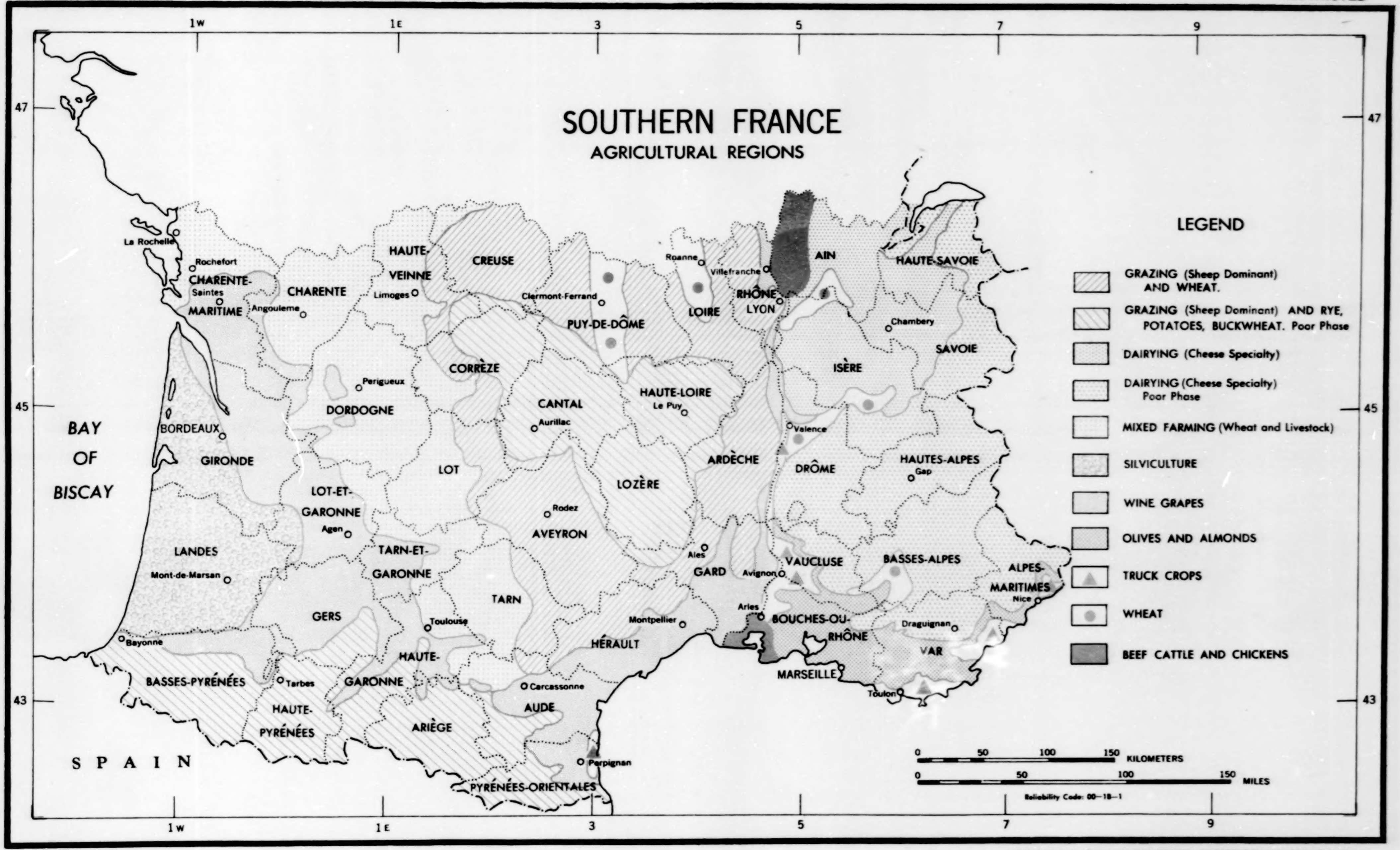
SOUTHERN FRANCE
AGRICULTURAL REGIONS
LEGEND
GRAZING (Sheep Dominant) AND WHEAT.
GRAZING (Sheep Dominant) AND RYE, POTATOES, BUCKWHEAT. Poor Phase
DAIRYING (Cheese Specialty)
DAIRYING (Cheese Specialty) Poor Phase
MIXED FARMING (Wheat and Livestock)
SILVICULTURE
WINE GRAPES
OLIVES AND ALMONDS
TRUCK CROPS
WHEAT
BEEF CATTLE AND CHICKENS
0 50 100 150 KILOMETERS
0 50 100 150 MILES
Reliability Code: 00—1B—1
BAY OF BISCAY
SPAIN
1W
1E
3
5
7
9
47
45
43
La Rochelle
Rochefort
CHARENTE-MARITIME
Saintes
CHARENTE
Angouleme
HAUTE-VEINNE
Limoges
CREUSE
Clermont-Ferrand
PUY-DE-DÔME
Roanne
LOIRE
Villefranche
RHÔNE
LYON
AIN
HAUTE-SAVOIE
Chambery
SAVOIE
ISÈRE
CORRÈZE
Perigueux
DORDOGNE
CANTAL
Aurillac
HAUTE-LOIRE
Le Puy
Valence
ARDÈCHE
DRÔME
HAUTES-ALPES
Gap
BORDEAUX
GIRONDE
LOT
LOT-ET-GARONNE
Agen
LOZÈRE
Rodez
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REPRODUCED IN THE REPRODUCTION SECTION, OSS

FOREWORD

The present study covers the area of France which is roughly south of a line from La Rochelle (Charente-Inférieure) to Geneva (Switzerland). It comprises the following departments: Aix, Alpes-Maritimes, Ardèche, Ariège, Aude, Aveyron, Basses Alpes, Basses Pyrénées, Bouches du Rhône, Cantal, Charente, Charente-Inférieure, Corrèze, Creuse, Dordogne, Drôme, Gard, Gers, Gironde, Hautes Alpes, Haute Garonne, Haute Loire, Hautes Pyrénées, Haute Savoie, Haute Vienne, Hérault, Isère, Landes, Loire, Lot, Lot-et-Garonne, Lozère, Puy-de-Dôme, Pyrénées Orientales, Rhône, Savoie, Tarn, Tarn-et-Garonne, Var, and Vaucluse.[1]

In 1936, this area had a population of 13,583,000, or 32 percent of the total for France.[2] Of these, nearly 7 million, or more than half, were rural, a higher proportion than for France as a whole.

---

[1] See map. The same territory was covered by a previous study, R & A 891, (7), which however was largely confined to a description of the general and regional characteristics of Southern-French agriculture. The present analysis was prepared to meet the need for a fuller evaluation of the wartime productive capabilities of the agriculture of the area; of the problems of food administration and distribution which will be encountered in the event of occupation; and of the probable requirements of the area for foodstuffs and agricultural supplies. It should also be noted that some of the basic data presented in the earlier study are in error; a correction may be obtained on request from the Research and Analysis Branch, Office of Strategic Services, Washington, D. C.

[2] Throughout this study, the totals for France apply to the pre-war territory including Alsace-Lorraine.

FOOD RESOURCES OF SOUTHERN FRANCE

I. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS[1]

Southern France is not a rich agricultural area. The plateau and mountain regions have infertile soils and, except for dairy products and wool, are not capable of producing surpluses. Much of the land in the valleys and plains is devoted to specialty products, such as grapes, fruits, and vegetables. The Mediterranean section is subject to summer drought. The area as a whole is deficient in staple foodstuffs and is normally dependent on imports from Northern France (wheat, sugar) and from North and West Africa (wheat, oils, feed concentrates).

A. Land Use[2]

Only about half of the total area is used for agricultural production; two-thirds of this is cultivated, and one-third is in permanent grass. Only one-quarter of the total area is in field crops (as compared to 37 percent in the North),[3] and yields per hectare are relatively low. For every two hectares devoted to cereals one is devoted to vineyards, tree crops, and truck crops, whereas in the rest of France this relationship is three to one.

B. Land Tenure[4]

The average holding contains little more than 10 hectares, with 75 percent of the holdings under 10 hectares and only 2 percent exceeding 50 hectares. Eighty-three percent of the operators own their farm, while about 8 percent each are tenants and share-croppers, respectively.[5] The

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1. See map.
2. See Table 1.
3. I.e. the rest of France.
4. See Table 2.
5. See footnote, Table 2.

Table 1. LAND USE, 1929
(thousand hectares)

	Southern France	France
Total area	24,068	55,099
Total agricultural land	12,472	33,542
Permanent meadows and pastures	4,465	10,712
Total cultivated land	8,007	22,830
All field crops	6,236	20,381
Cereal crops	3,368	11,096
Potatoes	541	1,323
Dry legumes	90	184
Small fruits and truck crops	59	130
Temporary meadows and pastures	1,184	3,664
Vegetable gardens	124	402
Vineyards	1,286	1,596
Tree crops	277	452

Source: (4).

Table 2. LAND TENURE, 1929

a. Size of Holdings

Size (hectares)	Southern France		France	
	Holdings		Holdings	
	Number (Thousands)	Percent of total	Number (Thousands)	Percent of total
less than 1	463	25	1,015	25
1-10	962	51	1,864	47
10-50	414	22	974	25
50-100	29	1	82	2
over 100	11	1	32	1
Total	1,879	100	3,967	100

b. Tenure[a]

Kind of tenure	Southern France		France	
	Number of operators (Thousands)	Percent of all operators	Number of operators (Thousands)	Percent of all operators
Owner-operators	1,439	83	2,729	75
Tenants	153	9	728	20
Share-croppers	146	8	199	5
Total	1,738	100	3,656	100

[a] Operators holding land under more than one of these three forms of tenure were counted only once, according to that form of tenure under which the largest part of the farm was exploited.

Source: (4).

share-cropping system (métayage) is widely used in the poorer sections, particularly in the Massif Central. Crops are shared on a fifty-fifty basis, with the landlord providing housing, food, and fuel and, usually, two-thirds of the seed and fertilizer. The share of the landlord includes one-half of the increment in livestock weights. In addition, the cropper owes certain personal services to the landlord.

C. Types of Farming[1]

There are three major types of farming areas:

1. Grazing Economy. Livestock grazing, supplemented by cereal and potato farming, is characteristic of the mountainous areas in the Alps, the Massif Central, and the Pyrénées. These areas, particularly the Alpine region, produce a surplus of dairy products; otherwise they are self-sufficient at a low level of consumption. Generally speaking, tillage and cattle raising tend to be concentrated in the valleys and on the lower slopes. At high altitudes and in the poorer areas, sheep and goats predominate.

2. Mixed Farming, grain and livestock production, is practiced in the rolling plains of the Aquitaine Basin. This region owes its prosperity to a relatively fertile soil and plentiful rainfall throughout the growing season.

3. Specialty-crop Areas. There are four regions which are chiefly devoted to grapes and other specialty-crops. One is a broad band of territory extending from the lower Gironde to the region of Toulouse. The second is a strip along the Mediterranean coast west of the Rhône Delta. These two regions produce the bulk of the French wine crop.

---

[1] For a more detailed description of regional characteristics, see (7).*

* Figures in parentheses refer to items in the bibliography.

The area around Perpignan is devoted to the intensive production of spring vegetables. The third specialty-crop region extends along the Mediterranean from the Rhône Delta to the Italian border. Less than half of this district is under cultivation because of rough terrain and insufficient precipitation. The lower slopes are planted to olives, almonds, and grapes. Some of the land on terraces and in the valley bottoms is irrigated and devoted to truck crops and fruits. The fourth region is a narrow band extending north from the Rhône Delta along the Rhône River to the area of Lyon, and along the valleys of the Saône, Isère, and Durance. This region produces a surplus of wine, wheat, and vegetables.

The Rhône Delta is poorly drained and is devoted principally to the grazing of beef cattle. The Landes, a sparsely populated area of infertile soil along the Bay of Biscay, is covered almost entirely by pine forests.

Among the large urban centers in the area, Bordeaux, Toulouse, and Lyon are reasonably close to agricultural surplus regions. Marseille, Toulon, and Nice, on the other hand, are far removed from surplus areas; their provisioning constitutes one of the major problems of wartime food distribution.

D. Seeding and Harvesting Periods

The approximate planting and harvesting periods of the principal crops are shown in Table 3. For field crops, fertilizer is applied at the following periods: superphosphates in October-November; nitrates in the spring. Grapes are treated with copper sulphate in February or March.

Table 3. APPROXIMATE PLANTING AND HARVESTING PERIODS, SOUTHERN FRANCE

Crop	Planting time	Harvesting time
Wheat	October-December	June-July
Rye	October	June-July
Barley	April	June-July
Oats	April	June-July
Corn	April-May	September-October
Potatoes		
Early	March-April	May-August
Late	May	September
Sugar beets	April-May	October
Beans	April-July	June-September
Peas	March-May	May-July
Almonds	--	August-September
Chestnuts	--	October-November
Olives	--	November
Grapes	--	September-October

Sources: (1) and (7).

II. FOOD PRODUCTION

A. Input

1. Manpower. Even before the war, French agriculture suffered from a shortage of manpower which was relieved only in part by the immigration of farm workers from Poland and Italy. Their numbers were increased by seasonal workers, many of them migrants. In Southern France, large numbers of seasonal workers from Spain and Italy were employed in the larger vineyards and orchards for the pruning, spraying, and harvesting operations.

In peacetime, roughly seven million persons were employed in French agriculture, of which about one million were permanent hired laborers, and another million were hired on a seasonal basis. The war has reduced this total by at least 10 percent (700,000); 340,000 prisoners of war, 60,000 former prisoners of war released for work in Germany, 100,000 youths of the 1942 class drafted for work in Germany, and nearly 200,000 foreign farm hands who have left France since 1940.[1] To this must be added some 50,000 migratory workers from Italy and Spain who normally entered the country for seasonal farm work but have stayed away in recent years.[2]

The following steps were taken by the government to relieve the ensuing shortage of manpower. Young men between 16 and 20 may be requisitioned for farm work and employed in teams under the supervision of instructors appointed by the Youth Secretariat.[3] Except for the 1942 and 1943 classes (which were conscripted entirely for work in Germany), young men in the conscript age groups may

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1. Petit Parisien, 15 November 1943 and other sources.
2. On the other hand, there is some evidence of migration from small urban centers to farms alleviating the shortage of agricultural manpower.
3. Radio Lyon, 2 June 1943.

remain in France only if they work in agriculture and food processing.[1] Volunteer farm workers are offered bonuses in kind; in some regions they are allowed to take away fifty kilograms of potatoes and three kilograms of dried vegetables at the end of their term of employment.

2. Seeds. In peacetime France was nearly self-sufficient with regard to its seed supplies, but imported small quantities of vegetable seeds from Holland and Morocco. During the war, however, serious shortages of commercial seed developed and relatively large quantities had to be imported from Germany, Holland, Italy, and Hungary. Imports in 1943 included, besides colza, poppy, and sugar beet seeds, 160,000 metric tons of seed potatoes (about 8 percent of total requirements), rye seeds for 13,400 hectares, maize seeds for 8,300 hectares (3 percent of total requirements) and wheat, barley, alfalfa, pea, and bean seeds.[2] Special efforts were made by the French government to assure an equitable distribution of seed potatoes among farmers, small gardeners and cooperative groups; 600,000 metric tons were distributed in 1943.[3] The quantities of seed per hectare and the seed-yield ratios for the principal crops are shown in Table 4.

---

1. Review of the Foreign Press, 15 November 1943.
2. Le Petit Comtois, 24 August 1943.
3. L'Effort, 14 September 1943.

Table 4. QUANTITY OF SEED PER HECTARE AND APPROXIMATE SEED-YIELD RATIOS IN FRANCE, 1929

Crop	Seed per hectare (kgs.)	Approximate seed-yield ratio
Winter wheat	176	0.10
Winter barley	150	0.09
Winter oats	137	0.08
Rye	162	0.12
Corn	46	0.03
Potatoes		
early	1,596	0.14
late	1,618	0.14
Jerusalem artichokes	1,286	0.09
Kidney beans	135	0.17
Broad beans	177	0.14
Peas	179	0.12

Source: (4).

Table 5. CONSUMPTION OF CHEMICAL FERTILIZERS AND COPPER SULPHATE, FRANCE AND SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1928-29, 1938, 1942, 1943[a]
(thousand metric tons)

Fertilizer	Pure plant-food content (percent)	France[b]				Southern France				Consumption in Southern France as percent of consumption in France, 1928-29
		1928-29[c]	1938[d]	1942[e]	1943[e]	1928-29[c]	1938[f]	1942[f]	1943[f]	
Nitrogenous:										
Nitrate of soda	16 (N)	395	280[g]	h	h	82	59	h	h	21
Sulphate of ammonia	21 (N)	382	395[g]	h	h	76	79	h	h	20
Nitrate of lime	13 (N)	44[i]	185[g]	h	h	8[e,i]	33	h	h	18
Cyanamide of calcium	18 (N)	64	63[g]	h	h	4	4	h	h	6
Total (in terms of pure nitrogen)	100 (N)	162	163	50	50	35	31	11	11	22
Phosphoric:										
Superphosphate (14 percent)[k]	14 (P_2O_5)	2,007	972	324[l]	h	633	311	104	h	32
Ground phosphate rock	28 (P_2O_5)	154[i]	120	40	h	50[e,i]	38	13	h	32
Basic slag	18 (P_2O_5)	810	642	700[m]	700[m]	160	128	140	175	20
Total (in terms of pure phosphoric oxide)	100 (P_2O_5)	470	285	183	126	140	77	43	32	30

(See following page for footnotes)

Table 5. CONSUMPTION OF CHEMICAL FERTILIZERS AND COPPER SULPHATE, FRANCE AND SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1928-29, 1938, 1942, 1943^{a} (continued)
(thousand metric tons)

Fertilizer	Pure plant-food content (percent)	France^{b}				Southern France				Consumption in Southern France as percent of consumption in France,
		1928-29^{c}	1938^{d}	1942^{e}	1943^{e}	1928-29^{c}	1938^{f}	1942^{f}	1943^{f}	1928-29
Potassic:										
Potash salts (in terms of pure potash)	100 (K_2O)	217	300	150	150	50	69	35	35	23
Copper sulphate	-	58^{i}	62	35^{n}	32	44^{i}	45	27	24	75^{o}

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a. Comments on sources and methodology given on following page.
b. Pre-war territory.
c. Source: *Statistique agricole*, 1929.
d. *Yearbook*, Internat'l Institute of Agriculture, 1940-41.
e. Estimated.
f. Estimated on basis of 1928-29 relationship between Southern France and France.
g. 1937-38.
h. No separate estimate made.
i. 1929.
k. Phosphates and superphosphates of varying P_2O_5 content reduced to common basis of 14 percent P_2O_5.
l. Source: *Deutsche Volkswirt*, 18 December 1942.
m. Increase due to increased steel output. Allowance made for increased export of basic slag from Lorraine to Germany and other parts of Axis-Europe.
n. Axis press reports checked against reported production of sulphuric acid.
o. Estimated on basis of acreage in orchards and vineyards.

Note to Table 5

The data for 1928-29 are taken from the Statistique Agricole for 1929. For 1938, data for France as a whole are given in the Yearbook of the International Institute of Agriculture; the figures for Southern France are estimates based on the proportions of each fertilizer consumed in Southern France in 1928-29. The 1942 and 1943 estimates for France are based on intelligence information. In computing the amounts consumed in Southern France in these years, the 1928-29 proportions were used. In the case of nitrogen and potash, no estimates were made for the various compounds; only the pure plant-food equivalent is shown. For the phosphatic fertilizers, on the other hand, the 1928-29 proportions were applied to the estimated French totals of each of the major compounds: superphosphates, ground natural phosphate, and basic slag. This procedure was based on the following considerations. Of the two principal sources of phosphoric oxide, basic slag is available principally in the North, while the South has a relatively larger share in the supplies of phosphate rock, which is imported from North Africa. When the imports of phosphate rock used in superphosphates declined, it may be assumed that the agriculture of Southern France was affected more severely than that of the North, the North having easy access to basic slag. In Table 5, it is assumed the South obtained the same share of total French superphosphate supplies (manufactured from phosphate rock) and of ground phosphate that it had obtained in 1928-29, viz. 32 percent. This implies that the decline in imports of phosphate rock was not compensated by an increase in the

Southern share of basic slag (20 percent). In 1943, however, when imports of phosphate rock were cut off completely, it is assumed that a somewhat larger proportion (25 percent) of the available supplies of basic slag was consumed in the South.

3. Fertilizers and Sprays. Consumption of chemical fertilizers in Southern France is low compared to that of Northern France. In the 1928-29 season, the quantities of pure plant-food equivalents consumed per hectare of cultivated land were 4.4 kilograms of pure nitrogen, 17.5 kilograms of phosphoric oxide, and 6.3 kilograms of pure potash. The corresponding figures for Northern France are 8.6, 22.3, and 11.3 kilograms, respectively.

In Table 5, the total consumption of chemical fertilizers is shown for 1928-29, 1938, 1942, and 1943, for France and Southern France, respectively.

In normal times, Southern France derives a larger proportion of its phosphoric oxide requirements from superphosphates than does the rest of France. Consequently, when production of superphosphates was increasingly curtailed between 1928-29 and 1943, Southern France, being removed from the sources of basic slag, was the chief sufferer. Between 1929 and 1938, consumption of phosphoric oxide in the South dropped by almost 50 percent, but by less than 40 percent in the rest of France. In 1942, production of superphosphates having fallen further, partly owing to a shortage of sulphuric acid, consumption of phosphoric oxide in the South fell to 30 percent, in the rest of France to 42 percent of the 1928-29 level. By 1942, basic slag was supplying three-fourths of total French consumption, as against barely one-third that it had supplied in 1928-29. In the fall of 1942, imports of phosphate rock from North Africa were cut off completely, leaving basic slag as the only source of phosphoric oxide. There are indications that the French government tried to secure a larger share of the slag produced in France and Lorraine to partly make up for the deficiency; but the Germans did not only resist any attempt at reducing French deliveries of basic slag (including deliveries from Lorraine), but also requisitioned a large part of the stocks of phosphate remaining in France.[1]

French consumption of nitrogenous fertilizers was maintained between 1929 and 1938, but declined sharply during the war, from 163,000 metric tons of pure-nitrogen equivalent to 50,000 metric tons in 1942 and 1943. Only about 20 percent of this was consumed in Southern France. As in other countries, there was a tendency even before the war to substitute synthetic nitrogenous products (particularly nitrate of lime), for Chile saltpeter; but as late as 1938, France still imported 200,000 metric tons (or nearly one quarter of her agricultural nitrogen requirements) from Chile. The war cut off these imports, and the coal shortage caused a decline in the production of the synthetic nitrates. The use of ammonium sulphate, the most extensively used nitrogenous fertilizer in peacetime, was prohibited completely, but some calcium cyanamide appears to be available.

Aided by a government campaign to promote its use, the consumption of pure potash from Alsatian potash mines increased from 217,000 metric tons in 1928-29 to 300,000 metric tons in 1938. Only about one quarter of this total was used in Southern France. During the war, however, potash consumption is reported to have dropped to one-half of the pre-war level. If Southern France is cut off from the Alsatian deposits, only small supplies of potash will be available for import from Spain.

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[1] According to a report by Max Bonnafous, Secretary of State for agriculture and food supplies in the spring of 1943.

The shortage of chemical fertilizers is aggravated by a reduction in the quantity and quality of farm manure. The supplies of fish waste, which was used for fertilizer in Southwestern France, have also declined.

France's pre-war production of chemical fertilizers and her trade in fertilizers or raw materials required for their manufacture are shown in Table 6. In 1938, France imported almost 1,000,000 metric tons of phosphate rock from North Africa, but exported nearly one-third of her basic slag and more than one-third of her potash. She imported two-thirds of her nitrate-of-soda requirements and about one-seventh of her sulphate of ammonia and nitrate of lime. She also imported nearly 500,000 metric tons of pyrites and some 450,000 metric tons of sulphur needed in the production of superphosphate, ammonium sulphate, and copper sulphate.

Before the war, the manufacturing facilities for the production of superphosphate located in Southern France were adequate for the requirements of the area. The phosphate rock needed for the manufacture of this most popular fertilizer was imported from North Africa, the sulphur and pyrites largely from Sicily and Spain. Sulphuric-acid capacity in Southern France is adequate to meet all agricultural requirements. Barring unusual industrial demands upon nitrogen capacity, the facilities for the production of synthetic nitrogenous fertilizers would also be sufficient for the limited requirements of the area, with some of the largest nitrate plants of France located near the sources of hydroelectric power in the

Table 6. CHEMICAL FERTILIZERS AND COPPER SULPHATE PRODUCTION AND NET TRADE, FRANCE 1938
(thousand metric tons)

Fertilizer	Production	Net trade[a]
Nitrate of soda	100	+ 200
Sulphate of ammonia	350	+ 54
Nitrate of lime	150	+ 26
Cyanamide of calcium	60	0
Phosphate rock	82	+ 912
Basic slag	860	- 270
Superphosphate of lime	1,168	- 15
Potash[b]	580	- 214[c]
Pyrites	0	+ 500[d]
Sulphur	0	+ 444
Copper sulphate	66	+ 15

a. Net imports indicated by (+), net exports by (-).
b. In terms of pure potash.
c. Estimated on basis of tonnage of various potash salts exported.
d. Estimated.

Source: (3).

Table 7. MACHINERY ON FARMS, FRANCE AND SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1929, 1938[a]

Type	France	Southern France
Tractors	33,098	17,344
Reaper-binders	362,837	94,939
Threshing machines	154,537	19,912
Fodder presses	10,307	2,777
Mechanical seeders:		
Row	268,600	36,300
Broadcast	53,500	10,500
Total	322,100	46,900
Fertilizer distributors	119,400	12,800
Plows:		
Two-way multiple bottom	1,190,000	545,000
Regular multiple bottom	198,000	83,000
Total multiple bottom	1,388,000	628,000
Disk harrows	45,500	30,100
Rollers	64,900	18,700
Mowers	1,389,000	588,000
Rakes (horse-drawn)	739,000	261,000
Haymakers	354,000	98,000
Hay loaders	3,420	1,932
Potato planters	7,518	764
Potato diggers	59,500	18,800
Large sprayers	142,000	102,000

(See following page for footnote)

Table 7. MACHINERY ON FARMS, FRANCE AND SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1929, 1938.[a] (continued)

Type	France	Southern France
Grain-mashing machines	221,000	49,300
Grape presses	387,000	208,000
Stills	70,000	15,000
Cream separators	666,000	125,000
Churns	22,300	4,900

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[a] The year for the first four items is 1938, for all others 1929.

Source: (4) and (5).

Alps and Pyrénées.[1] Potash fertilizers, however were imported from Alsace in manufactured form.

The vineyards and orchards of Southern France normally require each year nearly 75,000 metric tons of copper sulphate spray,[2] of which about 80 percent is produced in the area. Half of the scrap copper used in its production is produced domestically, the other half imported from Spain and Yugoslavia; most of the sulphur is imported from Sicily. The Cornubia plant in Bordeaux is the largest producer in France. Owing to a shortage of both copper scrap and sulphuric acid, production declined to about one-third of normal by 1942, with a further decline in prospect for the current year. There can be little doubt that the shortage of this important spraying material is chiefly responsible for the low level of grape yields during the past several years.

Production of arsenate of lead, on the other hand, has been more nearly maintained. This spraying material is important in checking the doryphores which every year attack potatoes and tomatoes.

4. Farm Machinery. The pre-war farm machinery position of Southern France is shown in Table 7. In 1938, there were 17,344 tractors in Southern France, or more than 50 percent of the French total. The light tractor,. which is particularly suited to small holdings,

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[1] One large plant alone, that of the Office National Industriel de l'Azote, located at Toulouse, has a capacity of 40,000 metric tons of pure nitrogen. Eight other plants located at Lannemezan (Hautes Pyrénées), Firminy (Loire), Brignoud (Isère), Bellegarde (Ain), Modane (Savoie), Decazeville (Aveyron), St. Etienne (Loire), and Chambéry (Savoie), have a combined capacity of about 43,000 metric tons. In addition, a large plant was under construction at Génissiat, near Bellegarde (Ain).

[2] The figure for 1938 (45,000 metric tons) shown in Table 5 is abnormally low.

Table 8. IMPORTS OF TRACTORS INTO FRANCE, 1938

Weight per tractor (kilograms)	Number imported from							
	Germany	U.S.A.	Great Britain	Hungary	Switzerland	Sweden	Other	Total
Less than 1,250	52	50	109	0	85	0	4	300
1,250 - 2,000	152	147	19	0	0	0	18	336
2,000 - 3,000	342	52	0	0	0	34	33	461
Over 3,000	283	518	0	105	0	0	11	917
Total	829	767	128	105	85	34	66	2,014

Source: International Review of Agriculture, March 1940.

was predominant. It was manufactured by several firms in France. In addition, several French manufacturers, among them Renault and Latil, made wheeled tractors of about 25 horsepower. The French industry had an estimated capacity of about 10,000 tractors per annum, but it is believed that actual production did not reach this total. On the other hand, about 2,000 tractors were imported annually, most of them of heavier types not produced domestically (see Table 8). During the war, about three-fourths of the tractors were converted to producer-gas.

The number of threshing machines in Southern France amounted to only 20,000 in 1938, or 13 percent of the French total. About half of these were small machines, with a daily capacity not exceeding 40 quintals. Albaret is the best known producer. The number of reaper-binders was 95,000 or about one-fourth of the total for France. It is likely, however, that since 1929 the supply of equipment on farms underwent considerable change.

Estimates of the pre-war production of farm machinery in France, and of the normal annual machinery requirements of French agriculture are shown in Table 9.[1] Except for heavy tractors, combines, and cream separators, French output of farm machinery was sufficient to cover normal requirements. American companies, including the International Harvester Company and Massey Harris operated French plants engaged in the manufacture and assembly of farm machinery. The simpler types of implements were manufactured locally in a large number of small plants.

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[1] Except for tractors, these estimates were prepared by Mr. Harris Swanberg of the Foreign Economic Administration.

Table 9. ESTIMATED ANNUAL PRODUCTION AND NORMAL REQUIREMENTS OF FARM MACHINERY IN FRANCE (pre-war)

Type	Production	Requirements
Tractors over 30 horsepower	0	2,000
Tractors under 30 horsepower	7,000	5,000
Stationary engines of 5 horsepower and over	3,000	2,500
Stationary engines under 5 horsepower	6,000	5,000
Combines	0	100
Grain binders:		
Tractor drawn	3,000	2,500
Horse drawn	21,000	20,000
Threshing machines	4,500	4,000
Grain drills:		
Tractor drawn	1,000	1,000
Horse drawn	8,000	7,500
Broadcast seeders, tractor drawn	2,000	2,000
Mold-board plows	5,000	4,000
Disk plows, tractor drawn	1,800	1,000
Walking plows	77,500	75,000
Disk harrows:		
Tractor drawn	2,000	1,500
Horse drawn	2,000	1,500
Spike tooth harrows	77,500	75,000
Spring tooth harrows	38,000	30,000
Two-row tractor cultivators	500	300
One-and-more-row cultivators	1,500	1,000
One-horse cultivators	50,000	40,000
Field cultivators	500	500
Mowers	55,000	55,000
Hay rakes	25,000	24,000
Feed grinders	18,000	15,000
Cream separators, 250 lbs. and over	650	1,000
Cream separators, less than 250 lbs.	6,500	10,000

Source: Foreign Economic Administration.

The war has brought about a drastic decline in the production of farm equipment. According to a recent report[1] by Max Bonnafous, Secretary of State for Agriculture and Food Supplies, to the Reich Minister of Food Supplies, the tonnage of metal going into farm tools declined from 85,000 metric tons in 1938 to 48,000 metric tons in 1942, while an even more drastic reduction, from 240,000 metric tons to 48,000 metric tons occurred in the production of farm machinery. The effects of the shortage of farm machinery are aggravated by the shortage of manpower[2] and animal traction.

The hiring out of machinery had always been a widespread custom which was systematically encouraged by the government after the French defeat. An act of 24 January 1941 provided for the subsidization of machinery pools. On 30 April 1941, an agricultural machinery service functioning through the rural inspectors was organized. In April 1943, the pooling of machinery by communities was made compulsory.[3]

5. Feed. The mild climate and the equal seasonal distribution of rain enable the important livestock industry of Southwestern and South Central France to subsist on green fodder for its feed supply during the greater part of the year. Legume and graminaceous hay, root crops, fodder cabbage (choux fourrager), oats, and fava beans are regular components of the animal diet.

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[1] March 1943.
[2] II,A,1.
[3] Pariser Zeitung, 4 April 1943; Deutsche Bergwerkszeitung, 22 May 1943.

In the years preceding the war, however, oil cake, obtained as a byproduct of peanut oil, olive oil, and other oil assumed increasing importance in cattle feeding. The bulk of the oil cake was produced in the Marseille area, During the war, several factors combined to create an acute feed shortage. (1) In both 1941 and 1942, large areas of Southern France were struck by drought. In the Massif Central, the summer of 1942 was reported to have been the driest in fifty years. (2) Imports of peanuts from West Africa were cut off, reducing the production of oil cakes to practically zero. (3) The Germans requisitioned considerable quantities of oats. The shortage of feed brought about a marked decline in livestock numbers, particularly in the number of old animals.[1]

6. Packaging Materials. During the war, the shortage of packaging materials has constituted a serious bottleneck in the distribution of agricultural supplies. The area has a substantial glass industry which, after relatively minor conversion, should be able to handle requirements for bottles and jars. The area will however be dependent on imports for part or all of its requirements for binder-twine, rope, crates, nails, jute bags, packing paper, tarpaulin, and pins. Metal strips for barrel hoops may perhaps be obtained from the Lyon or Clermont-Ferrand regions.

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[1] II,B,3,a.

B. Output

1. General. Even in peacetime, Southern France was deficient in a number of staple foodstuffs.[1] With about one-third of the French population, the area accounted for little more than one-fifth of the total cereal production of France, and imported large quantities of wheat from Northern France and from North Africa.[2] For its sugar supply, the area was completely dependent on imports from the North. France as a whole, including the South, was deficient in fats and oils, and about half of the French requirements were covered by imports of peanuts, palm kernels and olive oil, from West and North Africa. Southern France supported somewhat more than a proportionate share of the French livestock population: 36 percent of the cattle, 41 percent of the pigs, 57 percent of the sheep, 55 percent of the goats, 44 percent of the horses, 82 percent of the mules, 54 percent of the asses,[3] and about 40 percent of the poultry.

Wine is the outstanding surplus crop of the area. In normal years, more than fifty million hectoliters, or 83 percent of the total French output, were produced in Southern France. Normally the area also has surpluses of fresh fruits and vegetables, dry legumes, and nuts. It is approximately self-sufficient in potatoes.

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[1] See Table 10.

[2] The North African crop matures in June, and is normally received in time to bridge the gap between two crops.

[3] The proportion of work animals is particularly high. The area also accounts for 60 percent of the draft oxen.

In 1940 and 1941, French agriculture underwent an unprecedented decline from which it is now gradually recovering. It is likely, however, that several factors will contribute to prevent a full recovery during the war. Among them are the shortage of fertilizer, machinery, and manpower. Furthermore, the all but complete disappearance of consumer goods from the market and the constant threat of increased German requisitions reduce the incentives for producing and marketing agricultural surpluses. In Southern France, the recovery of agricultural production was further retarded by rather severe droughts in 1941 and 1942.

2. Crop Production.

a. Grains. Southern France is deficient in grain. With about one-third of the French population, the area accounts for less than one-quarter of total French cereal production, and for less than one-fifth of the wheat crop.

In 1940, French grain output declined to little more than one-half of the pre-war level. The subsequent recovery was retarded by the lack of manpower, machinery, and fertilizer and, particularly in the South, by severe droughts in 1941 and 1942.

It is estimated that in the drought year 1942, Southern France produced less than 1,300,000 MT[1] of wheat and rye, as compared with a normal peacetime output of about 2,100,000 MT. In 1943, production of the two bread grains had increased to about 1,600,000 MT.[3] Further substantial increases are unlikely until larger supplies of fertilizer, machinery etc.,[2] and some industrial consumer goods can be made available.

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[1] Metric tons.

[2] See II. A, 3 and 4.

[3] Southern France also produces more than 400,000 metric tons of corn, half of which is now believed to be used for direct human consumption.

Table 10. CROP PRODUCTION, FRANCE AND SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1933-38, 1942, 1943
(Thousand metric tons)

Crop	France				Southern France				Production in Southern France as percentage of production in France, pre-war
	Pre-war[a]				Pre-war[a]				
	1933-38	1938	1942	1943	1933-38	1938	1942[b]	1943[b]	
Cereals:									
Wheat	8,430		5,550	6,450	1,653		1,000[c]	1,264	19.6
Rye	791		550	600	443		295[c]	336	56.0
Barley	1,086		850	1,080	170		120[c]	168	15.6
Oats	4,755		3,600	4,100	708		500[c]	611	14.9
Corn	524		400	450	488		355[c]	418	93.1
Total	15,586		10,950	12,680	3,462		2,270	2,797	22.2
Potatoes	15,552		14,000	15,000	4,842		4,354	4,665	31.1
Jerusalem artichokes		2,912	3,500	3,500		1,575	1,893	1,893	54.1
Sugar beets	8,708		6,700	6,200	246		150[c]	50[c]	2.8
Dry legumes[d,e]	242		245	260	124		100[c]	133	51.2
Fresh vegetables[f]		1,212	1,250	1,350		497	470[c]	553	41.0

(See page 30 for footnotes)

Table 10. CROP PRODUCTION, FRANCE AND SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1933-38, 1942, 1943
(Thousand metric tons) (cont'd)

Crop	France				Southern France				Production in Southern France as percentage of production in France, pre-war
	Pre-war[a]				Pre-war[a]				
	1933-38	1938	1942	1943	1933-38	1938	1942[b]	1943[b]	
Fresh fruits[g]		690	550	520		403	321	303	58.4
Tomatoes		188	150	150		164	125[c]	130	87.2
Nuts and chestnuts		163	160	160		115	113	113	70.6
Wine[h]	60,720		33,500	40,500	50,235		27,704	33,493	82.7
Oil crops:									
Olives		29.4[i]	48	42		26.4	43	38	90.0
Colza and rapeseed		10.6	18	90		4.8	9	40	45.0
Other oilseeds		1.5	7	35		9	3.5	17.5	50.0[k]
Total		9.0	16.0	47.3		5.9	10.9	25.3	

Footnotes on following page.

Table 10. CROP PRODUCTION, FRANCE AND SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1933-38, 1938, 1942, 1943
(Thousand metric tons) (cont'd)

Footnotes

a Six-year average (1933-38) used where available, otherwise 1938 only.
b Estimate based on pre-war share of Southern France in total production.
c In making these estimates, an allowance was made for the drought prevailing in Southern France.
d Kidney beans, peas, broad beans, and chick peas.
e Weight at harvest.
f String beans, green peas, carrots, onions, cabbage, cauliflower, pumpkins, and gourds.
g Apples and pears for fresh consumption, cherries, peaches, plums, prunes, table grapes, musk melons, watermelons.
h Thousand hectoliters.
j 1938 crop was abnormally low.
k Estimated.

b. Tuber Crops. It is believed that the output of potatoes in France has been fairly well maintained. In 1943, it is estimated, more than 4,650,000 MT were harvested in Southern France. This should approximately cover the requirements of the area.

It should also be noted that the area is a major producer of Jerusalem artichokes, of which nearly 1,600,000 MT were grown in a normal peacetime year. There are indications that the production of this crop, which in peacetime was largely fed to livestock, has been stepped up considerably. In some of the specialty-crop regions near the Mediterranean coast which are particularly deficient in staple foodstuffs, this starchy tuber crop reportedly constitutes an important item in the human wartime diet.

c. Sugar Beets. There are practically no sugar beets grown in Southern France, production amounting to less than 3 percent of the French total. In 1943, six thousand hectares in Southwestern France were reported to have been severely hit by drought.

d. Vegetables. Southern France normally grows a surplus of fresh and dry vegetables. The vegetable acreage, especially in kitchen gardens,[1] has been increased since 1941 and may now be more than 25-30 percent above the peacetime normal. On the other hand, yields have been unfavorably affected by the lack of fertilizer and the 1942 drought. The 1943 production of dried vegetables in Southern France is estimated at 133,000 MT, or about 8 percent above the pre-war normal; the production of fresh vegetables, including tomatoes, may have exceeded 680,000 MT.[2]

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1. On 25 November 1940 an act was passed facilitating by means of subsidies, the creation of 250,000 workers' allotments for the growing of vegetables.
2. This figure does not include melons or watermelons, which are listed under fresh fruits.

e. Fresh Fruits. In 1938, Southern France accounted for nearly 60 percent of the total French output of table fruits.[1] During the war, difficulties of transportation and the lack of spraying materials caused a sharp reduction in yield, from about 400,000 MT in 1938 to an estimated 300,000 MT in 1943. Southern France also produces about 70 percent of the nuts and chestnuts grown in France.

f. Wine. Grapes for wine is the chief surplus crop of Southern France. With a normal annual production exceeding sixty million hectoliters, France is the leading producer. More than four-fifths of this is produced in the southern half of the country. Most of the wine is of low grade; as "vin ordinaire," it is a regular item of the farmer's and workman's diet. The well-known high-grade wines which are grown in the Bordeaux region and in the Rhône Valley represent only a small percentage of the total production; but they account for an important fraction of the value of exports.

Although the leading producer of wine in the world, France is also the largest importer. Imports consist of generally low-grade wines which are shipped in bulk from North Africa to Mediterranean ports.

During the war, efforts have been made by the government to reduce the acreage occupied by vineyards to make room for more essential crops. An act of 22 August 1940 provided that not less than one-tenth of the area of every vineyard comprising more than five hectares or producing more than five hundred hectoliters of wine must be devoted to other crops excluding pasture land, woodland, and gardens.

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[1] This figure does not include apples and pears for cider, which are extensively grown in the North, but are of little importance in Southern France. It does include melons and watermelons.

For their protection against mildew and other pests, the vineyards are dependent on spraying materials, chiefly copper sulphate. While droughts contributed their part, the shortage of this material[1] is no doubt mainly responsible for the low yields experienced in recent years. In 1942, wine production declined to about one-half of the pre-war level. The 1943 output of Southern France is estimated at 33,500,000 hectoliters, or roughly two-thirds of the pre-war average. The total French crop is believed to be about 40,000,000 hectoliters.

According to reports from various Axis sources, this year's crop will probably be utilized in the following manner:

	Hectoliters
Retained by growers	10,000,000
Distributed under rations	19,000,000
Exported	2,000,000
Distilled used in brandy and apéritifs	2,000,000
Converted to industrial alcohol	7,000,000[2]

In peacetime, wine is not normally converted to industrial alcohol.

g. Vegetable Oils. Before the war, France produced more than 500,000 MT of vegetable oil. Nearly all of this was derived from imported oil seeds and fruits, peanuts being the chief source with annual imports of more than 800,000 MT, yielding about 250,000 tons of oil. Copra supplied approximately 90,000 MT of oil, palm kernels 68,000 MT, flaxseed 64,000 MT, and castor beans 8,000 MT. Practically all of these imports entered French ports in the form of raw materials to be crushed and refined in France. A large proportion of the processing capacity is located in Southern France, particularly near

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[1] See II, A, 3.

[2] This figure is very uncertain. (Variously estimated at between two and seven million hectoliters.)

Marseille and Bordeaux. In addition, about 15,000 MT of olive oil were imported every year.

Domestic production of oil crops was trifling by comparison. In the 1930's France produced some 40,000 MT of olives, about 10,000 MT of colza, and small amounts of rapeseed, flaxseed, hempseed, and poppyseed, yielding altogether less than 12,000 MT of oil.[1]

When France was cut off from some of her foreign sources of supply, an effort was made to expand the acreage of oil crops. Production has been fostered by a variety of measures including high prices, premiums for early delivery, and liberal bonuses. Since premiums in money proved to be ineffective, bonuses in kind were offered beginning in 1942.[2] By 1941-1942, the area sown to oil crops had increased to nearly 35,000 hectares, of which more than 21,000 hectares were devoted to colza and rapeseed, 8,000 to sunflower seeds and 4,000 hectares to poppyseeds. The harvest yielded about 25,000 MT of seed, or about 8,000 MT of oil.[3]

In the fall of 1942 the acreage sown to winter rape had increased to about 60,000 MT, when France was cut off from her remaining sources of vegetable oil in West and North Africa which had supplied nearly 100,000 MT of oil. In an effort to make up for the loss of these imports, a campaign was started to increase the acreage of spring-sown oil crops in 1943. As a result of this campaign, it appears that about 150,000 hectares were planted with summer rapeseed, sunflower seed, poppyseed, etc.

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1. The first crush of olives yields about 10 percent of edible (virgin) oil. The remaining olive pulp yields about 8 percent of coarse oil which is normally used for soap manufacture. The offals contain a sufficient residue of oil to be used for feed or fertilizer.
2. In 1942, 9 kilograms of rapeseed oil, 18 kilograms of soap, or 18 kilograms of oil cake were granted as premiums to growers for every 100 kilograms of rapeseed delivered (le Progrès, Lyon), 8/20/42.
3. Deutsche Bergwerkszeitung, 8/21/43; Aftontidningen, 12/19/42; Luxemburger Wort, 7/23/43; Berliner Börsenzeitung, 9/22/43.

(Some of this expansion was at the expense of sugar-beets). Yields per hectare have been low, however, particularly for poppy which produced only 3 quintals of seed per hectare. Total production of oilseeds this year will probably not exceed 125,000 metric tons, yielding about 40,000 metric tons of oil.[1] In addition, about 7,000 metric tons of oil will be available from olives,[2] and perhaps 3,000 metric tons from grape seeds.[3]

In 1938, Southern France accounted for nine-tenths of the olives grown in France, 45 percent of the colza and rapeseed, and an estimated 50 percent of all other oil seeds. Altogether, the area produced nearly 6,000 metric tons of oil, or roughly two-thirds of the total French production. The corresponding figures for 1943 are approximately 25,000 metric tons of oil, or 53 percent of the total for France.

3. Livestock and Livestock Products.

a. Livestock Numbers. The number of different classes of livestock on farms in Southern France is shown in Table 11. According to the official estimates for 1938, the area supported about 1,200,000 horses, 200,000 mules and asses, 5,200,000 heads of cattle, 3,000,000 pigs, 5,700,000 sheep, and 800,000 goats.

For a breakdown of the total cattle population one has to go back to the 1929 Census of Agriculture. In that year, the total number of cattle (5,919,000) was composed of 2,917,000 milch cows, 577,000 draft oxen, 50,000 bulls for breeding, 239,000 cattle being fattened, 275,000 young steers, 602,000 heifers, 402,000 calves for breeding, and 857,000 calves for slaughtering.

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[1] Le Nouvelliste (Lyon) (11/17/43) holds that the total production of oilseeds in 1943 will not exceed 100,000 metric tons, or 30,000 metric tons of oil.

[2] In the absence of specific information, the crop was assumed to be about average.

[3] In 1942, 1,300 metric tons of oil were recovered from grape pips. (Deutsche Bergwerkszeitung, 8/21/1943).

Table 11. LIVESTOCK NUMBERS ON FARMS, 1 NOVEMBER 1929, 1938, 1942, 1943
(thousands)

	France				Southern France				Number in Southern France as percentage of number in France.	
	1929[a]	1938[b]	1942[c]	1943[c]	1929[a]	1938	1942[d]	1943[d]	1929	1938
Horses		2,692	2,000	2,100		1,179[b]	880	924		44
Mules		135	110	120		111[b]	90	98		82
Asses		180	160	170		98[b]	86	92		54
Cattle:										
Bulls for breeding	210	280	280	280	50	67[d]	67	67	24	
Draft oxen	965	920	920	920	577	552[d]	552	552	60	
Milch cows	8,081	7,896	6,800	7,200	2,917	2,843[d]	2,300[e]	2,500[e]	36	
Cattle being fattened	786	1,152	7,000	7,600	239	346[d]	2,100[e]	2,500[e]	30	
Young steers	1,053	3,113			275	872[d]			26	
Heifers	2,100				602				29	
Calves for breeding-	1,740	2,260			402	859[d]			23	
Calves for slaughtering	1,578				857				54	
Total cattle	16,500	15,622	15,000	16,500	5,919	5,539[b]	5,019	5,619	36	
Pigs		7,127	4,200	5,000		2,957[b]	1,722	2,050		41
Sheep		9,872	8,600	9,400		5,673[b]	4,900	5,350		57
Goats		1,416	1,250	1,400		776[b]	688	770		55
Chickens	69,267				24,107				35	
Geese	3,806				2,092				55	
Ducks	4,640				2,267				49	
Turkeys	2,220				1,248				56	
Rabbits	30,888				10,619				34	

a Source: Statistique Agricole, 1929.

b Source: Statistique Agricole Annuelle, 1938.

c Estimates based on Axis newspaper reports and miscellaneous intelligence.

d Estimates based on the share of Southern France in 1929 and 1938 respectively.

e In making these estimates, allowance was made for the fact that Southern France was affected by the drought more severely than was the rest of the country.

A large proportion of the cattle was used for more than one purpose, with work-and-meat animals predominating in this category. The same count showed about 24,000,000 chickens, 2,100,000 geese, 2,300,000 ducks, 1,250,000 turkeys, and more than 10,000,000 rabbits.

During the war, livestock numbers declined as a result of a shortage of feed and manpower and of requisitions by the French and later the German Army. In Southern France, the droughts of 1941 and 1942 further aggravated the situation.

The sharpest decline occurred in pigs, the number of which fell by 40 percent between 1938 and November 1942. The number of sheep declined 18 percent. The French Army draft, destruction, and German requisitions have cut the number of horses in the southern zone by about 25 percent. The number of cattle declined by about 500,000 heads, or 10 percent, but this decline affected milch cows exclusively, which were reduced to 80 percent of the pre-war level. The number of young animals was fairly well maintained.[1] It should be noted, however, that the average live weight per animal in each category declined sharply during this period.

In the first quarter of 1943, marketings of meat and hides fell off sharply, indicating a movement on the part of farmers to reconstitute their stock. It is estimated that by November 1943, the total number of cattle had increased by about 12 percent; of young animals by nearly 20 percent; and of milch cows by 8 percent . The increase in pigs was nearly 20 percent, that in sheep about 10 percent.

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[1] These estimates of the livestock position in late 1942 are corroborated by market receipts of hides and reports on black-market transactions. Increased slaughter of large cattle resulted in increased marketings of cattle hides while the number of calves hides marketed declined 20 percent.

b. Meat Production. It is estimated that between 1933-37 and 1942-43, total meat production in France declined by about 18 percent, from 1,765,000 metric tons to 1,442,000 metric tons. But for the increase in the slaughter of cattle brought about by the droughts of 1941 and 1942, the decline would have been greater. In both the third and the fourth quarter of 1942, market receipts of large cattle in Paris and twelve other urban centers exceeded pre-war levels.[1] In the first quarter of 1943, however, market receipts of cattle dropped off sharply, suggesting a move on the part of farmers to rebuild their herds.

The sharpest wartime decline occurred in pork, which in 1942-43 was down to two-thirds of the pre-war level. Moreover, very little of this reached the legal urban markets. In spite of the decline in legal-market receipts, it is probably safe to say that the production of poultry and rabbits has been maintained. The production of mutton and lamb seems to have increased slightly.

Prospects for the current year point to a further 10 percent decline in meat production. An increase is anticipated only in poultry and rabbits, the bulk of which will be either consumed on farms or disposed of in the black market.

In the pre-war period, Southern France accounted for 35 percent of the total French livestock slaughter. Estimates of the area's meat production in 1942-43 and 1943-44 are based on the proportions prevailing before the war; but allowance was made for the probability of a more-than-proportional increase in the slaughter of cattle in 1942-43 because Southern France was hit more severely by the drought than was the northern part of the country.

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[1] Statistique Générale de la France, Bulletin, May 1943.

Table 12. MEAT PRODUCTION, FRANCE AND SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1933-37, 1942-43, 1943-44
(Thousand metric tons)

	France			Southern France			Production in Southern France as percent of production in France
	1933-37[a]	1942-1943[b]	1943-1944[b]	1933-37	1942-1943[b]	1943-44[b]	1933-37[c]
Beef and veal	786	700	600	259	242[f]	198	33
Mutton and lamb[d]	71	85	65	32	38	29	45
Pork	504	300	250	186	111	93	37
Horsemeat	44	10	10	6	1	1	13
Edible offals	60	47	40	21	16	14	35
Poultry and rabbits	300	300	320	108	108	115	36[e]
Total	1765	1442	1285	612	516[f]	450	35

a Source (1).
b Year beginning 1 July.
c Estimated on basis of slaughter (total dressed weight) as shown by 1929 Census.
d Including goat meat.
e Slaughter estimated on basis of livestock numbers in area.
f In making these estimates, allowance was made for the fact that Southern France was affected more severely by the drought than the northern part of the country.

Table 13. ESTIMATED MEAT DISPOSITION IN FRANCE, 1942-43[a]
(thousand metric tons)

Total production	1,142
Disposed by way of:	
Rations	522
Private slaughter (farms, etc.)	190
German requisitions	228
Illegal slaughter	202

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[a] Excluding poultry and rabbits.

In 1929, more than one-half of the total slaughter of the area was handled by public slaughter houses which were in existence in all large urban centers. Most of these were supplied with modern refrigerating and quick-freezing facilities. Slightly more than one quarter of the livestock was handled by private slaughter houses (including processors' slaughtering establishments) and the remainder by individual farmers and country butchers.

Normally, about 50,000 metric tons of meat were imported annually into France, consisting of about one-half mutton and lamb, one-third beef and veal, and one-sixth other meat. Most of the mutton originated in North Africa. As late as 1941, France imported 207,000 heads of sheep (carcasses and some live animals) from the latter area.

The utilization of the available meat supplies is shown in Table 13. It is estimated that after allowing for German requisitions (228,000 metric tons in 1942-43), and excluding poultry and rabbits, only about 75 percent of the remaining supplies (914,000 metric tons) are either distributed through legal channels or legally slaughtered by producers. At least 25 percent are slaughtered illegally.

c. Dairy Products. The production and utilization of milk is shown in Table 14. In 1942-43, the production of cow's milk had dropped 28 percent below the pre-war level. This decline was due in part to a reduction in the number of milch cows; but yields per cow also declined, as a result of the feed shortage and the use of milch cows for work. Production of fluid milk was down 32 percent,

Table 14. OUTPUT OF DAIRY PRODUCTS, FRANCE AND SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1938, 1942-43, 1943-44
(thousand metric tons)

Product	France			Southern France			Southern France as percentage of output in France
	1938[a]	1942-43[b]	1943-44	1938[a]	1942-43[c,d]	1943-44[c]	1938
Cow's milk							
Production	13,800	10,000	11,000	3,900	2,700	3,080	28
Utilization:							
Feeding to livestock	3,300	2,600	2,900	1,540	1,200	1,330	47
Fluid milk consumption:							
Total	3,400	2,300	2,535	790	515	590	23
On farms	700	700	775	190	190	210	27
Marketed	2,700	1,600	1,760	600	325	380	22
Butter:							
Total	4,900	4,100	4,475	850	685	800	17
Produced and consumed on farms	800	800	875	210	185	230	26
Marketed	4,100	3,300	3,600	640	500	570	16
Cheese	2,000	1,000	1,100	650	300	360	33
Cream and other uses	200			70			
Number of milch cows	7,896	6,800	7,200	2,843	2,300	2,500	36
Milk per cow per annum[e]	1,690	1,420	1,490	1,330	1,135	1,200	--
Dairy products:							
Butter	206	164[f]	179[f]	33	26[f]	29[f]	16
Cheese[g]	224	200[h]	220[h]	74	66[h]	72[h]	33
Goat's milk[i]	1,360[j]	1,200	1,300	585[j]	515	560	43

(See following page for footnotes.)

Footnotes to Table 14.

a Source: *Statistique Agricole Annuelle*, 1938.
b Based on estimates made by the British Ministry of Economic Warfare and other sources.
c Based on pre-war proportions.
d In making these estimates, allowance was made for abnormally poor pasture conditions in the area in that year.
e Liters.
f Allowing for 5 percent reduction in butterfat content of milk, compared with pre-war.
g Including cheese made from goat's and ewe's milk.
h Average butterfat content of cheese, 1942-44, estimated to be 45 percent below pre-war.
i Fluid consumption only.
j 1929.

and fluid-milk marketings dropped 40 percent,[1] while butter production declined only 16 percent. The amount of whole milk diverted to cheese production declined by about one-half; but owing to a drastic reduction in the average fat content of cheese,[2] cheese production may have been maintained at or near pre-war levels.

In 1942, about 51 million metric tons of milk were marketed through controlled channels.[3] This represents some 70 percent of the total net production, exclusive of livestock feeding. For the current year, it may be expected that the restocking of herds and more favorable pasture conditions will contribute to an increase in milk production by about 10 percent.

In peacetime, Southern France accounted for 28 percent of total French milk production. The area contained 36 percent of the milch cows, but the yield per cow was substantially lower than in the North. The pattern of utilization also differed from that prevailing in the North: a larger proportion of the milk was fed to livestock and converted to cheese, while substantially less was brought to market in the form of butter or fluid milk.

Of the large urban centers located in the area, only Lyon, Bordeaux, and Toulouse have ready access to surplus dairy regions. The provisioning of Marseille, Toulon, and Nice, on the other hand, had been difficult even in peacetime and was completely inadequate during the war. Supplies of fluid milk for these centers must be hauled over great distances. The area around Lyon, comprising the departments

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1. In addition, the fat content of fluid milk is reported to have declined as a result of "standardization."
2. Petit Marseillais, 12 October 1943.
3. Bern, 15 June 1943.

of Rhône, Ain, Haute Savoie, Savoie, Isère, Loire, and Saône-et-Loire produce surpluses, some of which are shipped as far as Marseille. Since cold-storage facilities are inadequate, fluid milk is generally delivered in 20-30 litre cans, submerged in cold water. In the summer, large quantities are lost through spoilage.

In 1929, France produced three million metric tons of goat's milk (43 percent of this in Southern France). Two-thirds of this, and all of the sheep's milk produced in excess of feeding requirements, were used in cheese production.[1]

4. Fats and Oils. The aggregate production of visible fats and oils of vegetable or animal origin is recapitulated in Table 15. Before the war, France's available fat supplies (869,000 metric tons) consisted of nearly two-thirds imported vegetable fats, and one-third domestically-produced (mostly animal) fats. By 1942-43, all imports had been cut off, and domestic production of fats had declined by almost 30 percent, from 369,000 to 265,000 metric tons, reducing the total available fat supplies to less than one-third of the pre-war level. In 1943, oil-seed and butter production were stepped up; as a result fat supplies in 1943-44 increased 12 percent over the level of the preceding year. Nearly one-fifth of domestic production of visible fats and oils now consists of vegetable oils.

The pre-war share of Southern France in the production of fats and oils amounted to 26 percent. If it is assumed that 36 percent of the fat imports were consumed in the area, its share in total available supplies would be 32 percent.

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[1] Shown together with cheese made from cow's milk in Table 14, second row from the bottom. Goat's milk consumed as milk is shown in Table 14, bottom row.

Table 15. VISIBLE FATS AND OILS PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, SUPPLIES 1938-39, 1942-43, 1943-44. (thousand metric tons)

	France			Southern France		
	1938-39	1942-43	1943-44	1938-39	1942-43	1943-44
Oil:						
Olive	5	8	7	4	7	6
Colza and rapeseed	4	6	32	2	3	15
Other	0	2	9	0	1	4
Butter:	206	164	179	33	26	29
Hogfat and tallow[a]	154[a]	85	70	55	31	25
Total domestic production	369	265	297	94	68	79
Imports	500	0	0	180[b]	0	0
Total available supplies	869	265	297	274	68	79

a Estimated (lard and slaughter fat: 25 percent of dressed weight; tallow: 5 percent of dressed weight of animals).

b Estimated.

In 1942, this percentage had declined to 27 percent.

5. Eggs. It is estimated that between 1937 and 1942-43, the production of eggs in France declined by about one-third, from 353,000 metric tons to 240,000 metric tons (see Table 16). An estimate for Southern France based on the area's proportionate share in egg production in 1929, indicates a production of 99,000 metric tons in 1937, and of 67,000 metric tons in 1942-43.

6. Seafish. It is believed that the total French seafish catch (excluding shellfish) declined from 346,000 metric tons in 1935-37 to about 200,000 metric tons in 1942-43. The pre-war catch from the coastal waters of Southern France was about 45,000 metric tons, of which about 80 percent came from the Bay of Biscay, the remainder from the Mediterranean coast. Additional supplies were normally brought to the ports of Southern France from more distant fishing grounds, but at present the area is of course completely cut off from these sources of supply.

Table 16. PRODUCTION OF EGGS
(In thousands of metric tons)

France[a]		Southern France[b]	
1937	1943-44	1937	1943-44
353	240	99	67

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[a] Source: (1)

[b] Estimated on basis of the area's share in egg production in 1929, viz. 28 percent.

Table 17. CATCH OF SEAFISH[a]
(In thousands of metric tons)

France		Southern France (Coastal Waters)	
1933-37	1942-43	1933-37	1942-43
346	200	45	24

[a] Excluding shellfish.

Sources: (1) and (7).

III. FOOD BALANCE

A. Supplies Available for Human Consumption (or Export)

The production estimates presented in Section III-B represent gross output. Not all of this is available for human consumption. First, allowance must be made for seed and waste. Second, part of the output is fed to livestock or diverted to industrial uses.[1] Third, part of the output is lost in processing.[2] These deductions are shown for Southern France in Table 18. The remainder represents the supplies available for human consumption (or export).

It should be noted that the computations in Table 18 are based on the assumption of Allied occupation of the area, with Northern France under German rule. They yield an estimate of the area's resources that would be available for disposition by the occupying authorities at the beginning of a new crop year, with production at present levels. The result is in certain respects different from what it would be under continued German rule. It has been assumed, for instance, that in the event of Allied occupation, (if for no other than morale reasons) the wheat milling ratio will be lowered from the present 90 percent to 85 percent. A more drastic reduction does not seem advisable, at least as long as Northern France remains under German rule.

Increased imports of fats and oils will probably make it possible to increase the total quantity that can be diverted to industrial purposes (particularly soap). Before the war, 325,000 metric tons, or more than one-third of all French supplies (including imports) were so used. At present this quantity is estimated to have declined to about

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1. Food processing is not considered here as an industrial use.
2. Milling offals, etc.

Table 18. SUPPLIES AVAILABLE FOR HUMAN CONSUMPTION OR EXPORT, SOUTHERN FRANCE, CROP YEAR 1943-44

	Gross output	Waste and seed		Feed and industrial uses		Net output	Losses in processing[a]		Supplies available for human consumption or export
	Thous. MT	Percent of gross output	Thous. MT	Percent of gross output	Thous. MT	Thous. MT	Percent of net output	Thous. MT	Thousand metric tons[b]
Wheat	1,264	14	177	5	63	1,024	15	154	870
Rye	336	13	44	15	50	242	20	48	194
Barley	168	13	22	60	101	45	25	11	34
Oats	611	13	79	75	458	74	20	15	59
Corn	418	6	25	50	209	184	25	46	138
Potatoes	4,665	25	1,166	25	1,166	2,333	0	0	2,333
Jerusalem artichokes	1,893	20	379	50	946	568	0	0	568
Sugar beets	50	5	2	0	0	48	87.5	42	6
Dry legumes	133	15	20	10	13	100	0	0	100

(See page 52 for footnotes)

Table 18. SUPPLIES AVAILABLE FOR HUMAN CONSUMPTION OR EXPORT, SOUTHERN FRANCE, CROP YEAR 1943-44 (cont'd)

	Gross output	Waste and seed		Feed and industrial uses		Net output	Losses in processing[a]		Supplies available for human consumption or export
	Thousand metric tons	Percent of gross output	Thousand metric tons	Percent of gross output	Thousand metric tons	Thousand metric tons	Percent of net output	Thousand metric tons	Thousand metric tons[b]
Fresh vegetables	553	20	111	0	0	442	0	0	442
Fresh fruits	303	20	61	10	30	212	0	0	212
Tomatoes	130	10	13	0	0	117	0	0	117
Nuts and chestnuts[c]	113	0	0	0	0	113	0	0	113
Wine[d]	33,493	0	0	22[e]	7,368[e]	26,125	0	0	26,125
Fats and oils	79	0	0	0	0	79[f]	0	0	79[f]
Meat[g]	450	0	0	0	0	450	0	0	450
Cheese[h]	72	0	0	0	0	72	0	0	72
Eggs	67	0	0	0	0	67	0	0	67

(See page 52 for footnotes)

Table 18. SUPPLIES AVAILABLE FOR HUMAN CONSUMPTION OR EXPORT, SOUTHERN FRANCE, CROP YEAR 1943-44 (cont'd)

	Gross output	Waste and seed		Feed and industrial uses		Net output	Losses in processing[a]		Supplies available for human consumption or export
	Thous. MT	Percent of gross output	Thous. MT	Percent of gross output	Thous. MT	Thous. MT	Percent of net output	Thous. MT	Thous. MT[b]
Cow's milk[i]	590	0	0	0	0	590	0	0	590
Goat's milk[j]	560	0	0	0	0	560	0	0	560
Seafish[k,l]	24	0	0	0	0	24	0	0	24

a Milling offals, etc., available for feed.
b Finished product: in terms of flour, refined sugar, etc.
c Shelled.
d Thousand hectoliters.
e Diverted to distilleries.
f All industrial uses to be covered by imports, therefore not deducted from domestic production.
g Including poultry and rabbits.
h From cow's milk only.
i For fluid consumption only. j All uses.
k Excluding shellfish.
l 1942-43.

50,000 metric tons, or 20 percent of the French production of fats and oils. After Allied reoccupation, it is estimated that in Southern France alone, about 30,000 metric tons will be used for industrial purposes. In Table 18, none of this is deducted from domestic production, although actually a part of the industrial requirements will be satisfied from domestic sources. With regard to sugar beets it has been assumed that the small quantity produced in Southern France will be used exclusively for sugar production. No other major changes in the utilization of African products are anticipated for the immediate post-occupation period. In particular, it is thought that the proportion of the area's wine production which is now thought to be diverted to industrial uses (chiefly industrial alcohol -- see III,B) will not be reduced since in the event of Allied occupation Southern France will have a considerable surplus of wine but will have no access to sugar beets as a source of industrial alcohol. The distillation of 20 percent of the wine would yield about 800,000 hectoliters of alcohol. This should be sufficient to satisfy the area's requirements for industrial alcohol. Once communications with Northern France are restored, the percentage of wine diverted to the production of alcohol should be considerably reduced.

B. Rural Food Consumption[1]

At the present time, the following foodstuffs are rationed to French farmers: bread and flour, meat, cheese, fats and oils, sugar, and wine. The bread ration for self-suppliers, including their families and employees, is the same as that for heavy workers: 2,450 grams per person per week. However, not all rural inhabitants grow wheat. The weighted average ration is estimated at 1,750 grams of flour per week. Only 90 grams of meat per week are allowed per member of the farm household; but this ration may be supplemented by an additional allowance given to livestock producers. The maximum slaughter permitted under this allowance is one sheep or one goat per person or one pig per three or four persons; but for every pig slaughtered on the farm, a pig weighing not less than 80 kilograms must be handed over to the authorities. (Private slaughter of cattle and lambs is prohibited). It is estimated that most farmers are availing themselves of this allowance; the average amount of meat legally retained on this basis by the rural population is estimated at 588 grams per week per capita. Only 50 grams per week of cheese, the same as the urban normal consumer's ration, are allowed per rural inhabitant.

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[1] Rural population estimated at seven million.

With regard to fats and oils, rural consumers are allowed 52 grams per week for normal consumers, 122 grams for heavy workers, and 192 grams for very heavy workers.[1] Butter producers may however retain for home consumption an unlimited amount of butter. Distributed over the entire rural population, this quantity is estimated at about 90 grams per week. Growers of oil crops are allowed, on the average, an oil ration equivalent to about 12 percent of the crop. Distributed over the entire rural population, this amounts to about 8 grams per capita per week. The legal domestic slaughter of pigs may yield about 90 grams of fat per week to farm families making use of this option; they do, however, thereby forego the legal fats ration. On the average, per rural inhabitant, the total legal retention of fats and oils is thought to amount to about 140 grams per capita per week.

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[1] See IV, C for consumer categories.

The sugar ration is the same as for the urban population, the weighted average being estimated at about 166 grams per capita per week. Commercial vine growers, on the average, are allowed to retain for consumption by their household and employees about 12 percent of the crop. Small producers may retain about 300 litres of wine for each person over thirteen years old. Most farmers in Southern France have at least a small vineyard; those who do not are entitled to a ration of 1, 2, or 3 litres per week, according to the consumer category to which they belong. The weekly legal consumption of wine of the rural population is estimated at 2.2 litres per capita.

Rural consumption of potatoes, milk, eggs, fruits, vegetables, and nuts is unrestricted.

The estimated legal rural consumption of rationed foodstuffs is recapitulated in Column 3 of Table 19. About 1,650 calories per capita per day are obtained by the average rural inhabitant from nationally rationed foodstuffs. In Column 6, estimates are presented of the quantities of rationed and unrationed foods which are believed to have been actually consumed by the rural population. These estimates are based on newspaper and intelligence reports on total production and legal and illegal deliveries to the cities, and on what is known about the pre-war consumption pattern of the rural population. If these estimates come close to the truth, they would indicate that the present diet of the average rural consumer is at least as high as it was before the war.

Table 19. ESTIMATED RURAL FOOD CONSUMPTION, SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1943 -44[a]

Food	Total supplies available for human consumption. (thousand metric tons)	Estimated Rural Food Consumption						Supplies available for non-farm consumption or export (thousand metric tons)
		Legal consumption of nationally rationed foods			Actual consumption of nationally rationed and other foods			
		Per capita per day		Estimated quantities consumed 1943-44 (thousand metric tons	Per capita per day		Estimated quantities consumed 1943-44 (thousand metric tons	
		Grams	Calories		Grams	Calories		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Bread and flour[b]	1,295	250	900	640	350	1,260	890	405
Meat	450	97	262	248	125	338	320	130
Cheese	72	7	27	18	19	74	48	24
Eggs	67	c	--	c	16	25	40	27
Fats and oils	79	20	160	51	20	160	51	28
Sugar	6	23.7	95	60	23.7	95	60	-54[d]
Wine	26,125[e]	0.315[f]	208	8,050[e]	.43[f]	284	11,000[e]	15,125[e]
Cow's milk (fluid)	590	c	--	--	82	56	210	380
Goat's milk (fluid)	560	c	--	--	141	99	360	200
Potatoes	2,333	c	--	--	587	499	1,500	833
Jerusalem artichokes	568	c	--	--	56	44	142	426
Dry legumes	100	c	--	--	22	77	55	45
Fresh vegetables	442	c	--	--	95	47	242	200
Fresh fruits	212	c	--	--	52	33	132	80
Tomatoes	117	c	--	--	26	6	67	50
Nuts and chestnuts	113	c	--	--	25	125	63	50
Seafish	24	c	--	--	2	2	5	19
Total	--	--	1,652	--	--	3,224	--	--

[a] Rural population estimated at seven million.
[b] In terms of flour.
[c] Unrestricted.
[d] Deficit.
[e] Thousand hectoliters.
[f] Liters.

His total intake of more than 3200 calories[1] includes about 2200 calories obtained from nationally rationed foodstuffs, of which one-fourth represents food retained illegally.

The total quantities of foodstuffs consumed by the rural population are shown in Table 19, Column 8. The estimated surpluses available for urban consumption or export shown in Table 19, column 9, are based on the supposition, which appears reasonable, that the present level of rural consumption will not be reduced by the occupying authorities. If an attempt at reduction were made, it would probably meet with little more success than similar efforts by the present regime.

C. Urban Food Consumption and Food Balance

For purposes of rationing, the French population has been divided into several consumer categories. The following are the principal categories now in existence:

Category E (Enfants): Children under 3 years of age

Category J-1 (Jeunes): Children from 3 to 6

Category J-2: Children from 6 to 13

Category J-3: Adolescents from 13 to 21

Category A (Adultes): Normal consumers from 21 to 70

Category V (Vieux): Normal consumers over 70

Category T-1 (Travailleurs): Workers performing manual labor ("heavy workers")

Category T-2: Workers performing heavy manual labor ("very heavy workers")

Category C (Cultivateurs): Farmers and farm laborers

Expectant and nursing mothers.

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[1] See Table 22 for nutritive value of average rural diet.

Two additional categories, miners and engine drivers, were set up in November 1942 and in January 1943, respectively. They get extra rations of bread and meat. Certain consumers are classed in category T for special reasons: mothers of at least three children under 13 years of age, sick persons, liberated prisoners of war, pupils in certain secondary and high schools ("grandes écoles"). Special rations are given to large families (with five or more children), harvest workers, blood donors, examination candidates.

The exact present size of the various consumer categories is not known. The estimates for Southern France shown in Table 20, Column 2, are based on the consumer census of July 1941.[1] No attempt at estimating the size of the special categories was made. The census of 1941 indicates that the "heavy worker" category was interpreted rather generously. Another census was taken in 1942.

In Table 20, Columns 3-9, the present national food rations are shown for each consumer category.[2]

The total calories obtained from nationally rationed foodstuffs, by consumer categories, are shown in Table 21, Column 10. The weighted average rations appear in the bottom row of Table 20. The weighted average caloric intake of 1360 compares with a "normal consumer" ration of 1140 calories. The heavy worker's ration is equivalent to about

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[1] The number of persons in the category of expectant and nursing mothers, and the proportion of very heavy workers in the T-category, are OSS estimates.

[2] Source: M.E.W., Average Weekly Food Rations in Enemy and Enemy Occupied Countries, dated 10 January 1944.

1500 calories; very heavy workers obtain 1700 calories from nationally rationed foodstuffs.

The weighted average rations of nationally rationed foodstuffs and their caloric values are recapitulated in Table 21, columns 3 and 4, and the total quantities required to meet these rations are shown in column 5. The difference between the supplies available for urban consumption (column 2) and total urban requirements (column 5) represents the balance which remains after national rations are met (column 6). It can be seen that the area is deficient in cereal flour, of which 171,000 metric tons have to be imported annually to meet national urban rations, and in sugar, of which 114,000 metric tons have to be imported to meet both rural and urban requirements. Seven thousand metric tons of fats and oils must also be imported to meet only the very low fats rations now prevailing; this provides nothing for industrial fats requirements.

On the other hand, there appears to be a substantial surplus of meat, some of which -- perhaps as much as 40,000 metric tons -- is at present requisitioned by the Germans; a small fraction is shipped to the North, and the balance (nearly 30,000 metric tons?) reaches the urban black market. In the event of Allied occupation, the entire surplus would be available for urban consumption in the area. Wine is the outstanding surplus commodity of the area: a surplus of nearly eleven million hectoliters is available after urban rations are met. Some of this (perhaps as much as two million hectoliters) is now sold in the area through illegal channels; the bulk of the surplus is shipped to Northern France and some of it to Germany.

Table 20. DAILY URBAN RATIONS IN SOUTHERN FRANCE, AS OF 10 JANUARY 1944[a,b]
(grams)

Consumer category	Estimated number of people in specified category	Bread (in terms of flour)[c] and flour	Meat	Cheese	Fats and oils	Sugar[d]	Wine[e]	Milk	Calories
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Normal consumer	1,580,000	228	17.1	7.1	10.0	17.8	0.143	0	1140
Children aged less than 3	290,000	115	17.1	7.1	10.0	45.0	0	772	1287
Children aged 3-6	335,000	188	17.1	7.1	10.0	47.2	0	772	1558
Children aged 6-13	630,000	228	17.1	7.1	10.0	33.0	0	258	1286
Adolescents aged 13-21	720,000	285	29.3	7.1	10.0	30.7	0.143	0	1429
Expectant and nursing mothers[f]	60,000	291	47.3	9.6	15.0	43.2	0.143	516	1956
Old people (over 70)	345,000	171	17.1	7.1	10.0	24.3	0.143	0	959

(See following page for footnotes)

Table 20. DAILY URBAN RATIONS IN SOUTHERN FRANCE, AS OF 10 JANUARY 1944[a,b]
(grams) (cont'd)

Consumer category	Estimated number of people in specified category	Bread (in terms of flour)[c] and flour	Meat	Cheese	Fats and oils	Sugar[d]	Wine[e]	Milk	Calories
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Heavy workers	2,340,000	266	32.1	7.1	20.0	17.8	0.286	0	1492
Very heavy workers[g]	300,000	266	47.1	7.1	30.0	17.8	0.429	0	1707
Weighted average	---	239	25.4	7.1	14.5	24.0	0.179	102	1360

[a] Source: MEW, Average Weekly Food Rations in Enemy and Enemy Occupied Countries, dated 10 January 1944.
[b] Nation-wide rations only. Fruit, vegetables, fish, poultry, jam, eggs, potatoes, and skimmed milk are locally rationed.
[c] Bread flour, alimentary pastes, and rice, in terms of flour.
[d] Sugar, and sugar combined in chocolate and sweets ration.
[e] Litre.
[f] Source: MEW, Food Rationing in France, dated 6 July 1943.
[g] Engine drivers and miners are entitled to extra rations of bread and meat.

Table 21. URBAN FOOD CONSUMPTION, SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1943-44[a]

Food	Supplies available for non-farm consumption or export (thousand metric tons)	Present urban rations[b]			Balance left after meeting rations[c] (thousand metric tons)	"Possible urban diet"			Balance left after meeting "possible urban diet"[c] (thousand metric tons)
		Per capita per day		Quantities required to meet rations (thousand metric tons)		Per capita per day		Quantities required to meet diet (thousand metric tons)	
		Grams	Calories			Grams	Calories		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Bread and flour[d]	405	239	860	576	-171	239	860	576	-171
Meat	130	25.4	68	61	69	54	146	130	0
Cheese	24	7.1	28	17	7	10	39	24	0
Eggs	27	e	e	e	e	8	13	27	0
Fats and oils	28	14.5	116	35	- 7	41.5	332	100	-72
Sugar	-54[f]	24.0	99	60	-114	24.0	99	60	-114
Wine	15,125[g]	0.179[h]	118[h]	4,312[g]	10,813[g]	0.332[h]	219[h]	8,000[g]	7,125[g]

(See page 64 for footnotes)

Table 21. URBAN FOOD CONSUMPTION, SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1943-44[a] (cont'd)

Food	Supplies available for non-farm consumption or export (thousand metric tons)	Present urban rations[b]			Balance left after meeting rations[c] (thousand metric tons)	"Possible urban diet"			Balance left after meeting "possible urban diet"[c] (thousand metric tons)
		Per capita per day		Quantities required to meet rations (thousand metric tons)		Per capita per day		Quantities required to meet diet (thousand metric tons)	
		Grams	Calories			Grams	Calories		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Cow's milk (fluid)	380	102	71	246	134	158	109	380	0
Goat's milk (fluid)	200	e	--	--	--	83	58	200	0
Potatoes	833	e	--	--	--	346	294	833	0
Jerusalem artichokes	426	e	--	--	--	177	138	426	0
Dry legumes	45	e	--	--	--	19	66	45	0
Fresh vegetables	200	e	--	--	--	83	41	200	0

(See page 64 for footnotes)

Table 21. URBAN FOOD CONSUMPTION, SOUTHERN FRANCE, 1943-44[a] (cont'd)

Food	Supplies available for non-farm consumption or export (thousand metric tons)	Present urban rations[b]			Balance left after meeting rations[c] (thousand metric tons)	"Possible urban diet"			Balance left after meeting "possible urban diet"[c] (thousand metric tons)
		Per capita per day		Quantities required to meet rations (thousand metric tons)		Per capita per day		Quantities required to meet diet (thousand metric tons)	
		Grams	Calories			Grams	Calories		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Fresh fruits	80	e	--	--	--	33	21	80	0
Tomatoes	50	e	--	--	--	21	5	50	0
Nuts and chestnuts	50	e	--	--	--	21	105	50	0
Seafish	19	e	--	--	--	8	6	19	0
Total	--	--	1,360	--	--	--	2,551	--	--

a Urban population estimated at 6,600,000.
b Weighted averages, cf. Table 20, column 3.
c Excess of requirements over available supplies denoted by (-).
d In terms of flour.
e Unrestricted.
f Deficit.
g Thousand hectoliters.
h Litres.

Most of the estimated surplus of fluid milk (734,000 metric tons) is probably sold in the black market. If we include these illegal marketings of meat, wine, and milk, the total calories obtained by the average urban consumer from nationally rationed foodstuffs increase from 1360 to 1490. Locally rationed and unrationed foodstuffs contribute about 600 calories,[1] raising the present weighted average caloric intake to about 2100 calories per day.

D. Possible Urban Diet

Table 21, Column 7, shows an urban average diet which would be possible in the event of Allied occupation of the area. This diet is based on the assumption that Southern France is cut off from the North, while communications with North Africa have been reestablished.

The "possible urban diet" is based on the following guiding principles:

(1) So far as possible present national rations should at least be maintained.

(2) The average caloric intake per urban inhabitant should insure a minimum diet of 2000 calories to the normal consumer, and appropriate supplements to manual workers, adolescents, and other special consumer categories.

(3) The food requirements of the area should be met so far as possible from domestic supplies, and such imports as may be needed should come from nearby sources of supply, primarily North and West Africa.

The "possible urban diet" provides for the maintenance of the present bread and flour ration. To honor this ration, 171,000 metric tons of flour (or the equivalent amount of grain) will have to be shipped in, most of this from North Africa.[1] With regard to meat, cessation of German requisitions and of exports to Northern France would make it possible to increase the present meat ration by 50 percent. The urban per capita consumption of meat, including illegal marketings, would be raised to 54 grams per day. The "possible diet" also provides for distribution among the urban population of the entire domestic surpluses of cheese, eggs, milk, potatoes, vegetables, fruits, and nuts. After the liberation of Northern France, some of these surpluses would have to be shipped North.

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[1] It is assumed that there is a net export of these items from the area, amounting to about 100 calories per capita per day.

The importation of 72,000 metric tons of fats and oils annually would make it possible to almost triple the present urban fats ration, which is pitifully low. In addition, about 30,000 metric tons would have to be imported for industrial use (principally soap). This level of imports is well below the pre-war level of almost 600,000 metric tons (for all of France), and could be supplied entirely from North and West Africa.

With Northern France cut off from the area, the South would have a tremendous surplus of wine. Even if the urban per capita consumption is raised to 75 percent of the present rural average, about 7,000,000 hectoliters would remain on hand. Nevertheless it would not seem desirable to increase the ration above the indicated level, in view of the future requirements of Northern France, and the likelihood of an eventual reduction of southern wine rations. Full use should be made of the available storage capacity for the purpose of building up stocks for northern requirements.

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[1] At present this amount is shipped in from Northern France.

Maintenance of the present sugar ration would involve shipment of a considerable quantity, 114,000 metric tons, into the area. A reduction of the sugar ration might be considered if imports on this scale should prove to be difficult. More grape juice may be diverted to the production of grape sugar.

In addition, it is suggested that for reasons of morale, coffee, tea, and cocoa be imported at about 50 percent of the pre-war level. For Southern France, this would involve annual shipments of about 30,000 metric tons of raw coffee, 200 metric tons of tea, and 7,000 metric tons of raw cocoa.

Total shipments under the above program would amount to about 350,000 metric tons annually, or nearly 400,000 metric tons if the "morale" items are included.

The total caloric value supplied by the "possible urban diet" would amount to 2550.[1] Given a tolerably efficient system of distribution, this will be more than adequate to meet essential requirements, including allowances for supplementary rations. It would still be adequate even if the proposed sugar imports, or even the imports of fats and oils are cut in half, or if the proposed imports of 171,000 metric tons of flour were reduced by one-fourth. It may however be advisable to plan on providing somewhat ample supplies so as to allow for a margin of safety and for stockpiling requirements.

In the early stages of the liberation of Northern France, the "possible urban diet" may have to be reduced to about 2400 calories to meet essential requirements in

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[1] See Table 22 for nutritive value of "possible urban diet."

Table 22. NUTRITIVE VALUE OF DAILY DIET, PER CAPITA, SOUTHERN FRANCE

	Rural (actual)	Urban (possible)
Calories	3,224	2,551
Proteins (grams)	118	81
Fats (grams)	68	69
Carbohydrates (grams)	515	388

the North; but most of the reduction would affect unrationed foodstuffs and wine. On the other hand, shipments of wheat from the North could probably be resumed within less than a year of liberation.

E. Emergency Relief Requirements

If the reoccupation of Southern France is effected from beachheads along the Mediterranean shore, the liberating forces will be faced, in the initial stages, with the problem of feeding the population of an area which is extremely deficient in basic staple foodstuffs. For this period, the Allied authorities should be prepared to feed the entire urban population of six Mediterranean departments with 2000 calories a day for at least one month, and also to supplement the diet of the rural population of these departments at the rate of 500 calories per capita per day. After the first month, a survey of the local situation will show to what extent relief shipments can be reduced. As communications between rural and urban districts are reestablished, and as Allied beachheads are expanded into the agricultural surplus regions of the hinterland, the problem of provisioning the Mediterranean coast will be gradually alleviated.

The critical area mentioned is made up of the following departments: Pyrénées-Orientales, Aude, Hérault, Bouches-du-Rhône, Var, and Alpes Maritimes.[1] This area has a total population of 3,158,000 people, of whom 2,373,000 live in urban areas. The heaviest concentration of urban inhabitants is around Marseille, in the Bouches-du-Rhône department (urban population: 1,116,000).

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[1] The department of Gard which has a narrow corridor abutting on the Mediterranean is excluded because the bulk of this department lies in the hinterland.

The imports which will be required to feed the entire urban population of these six departments with 2000 calories a day for one month, and to supplement the rural diet to the extent of 500 calories per day, are shown in Table 25. These shipments would enable the occupation authorities to distribute daily to each urban inhabitant one Basic Relief Ration, as suggested by the Office of Foreign Relief and Rehabilitation Operations.[1] The supplement to be distributed to the rural population would consist of one Basic Relief Ration for every four rural inhabitants. The distribution of extra rations to children and expectant and nursing mothers, as suggested by OFRRO,[1] would involve shipment of an additional five thousand metric tons of foodstuffs, some of this in the form of evaporated milk.

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1. Department of State, Office of Foreign Relief and Rehabilitation Operations, Preliminary Draft of a Program for Relief Operations in Italy, 8 September 1943, pp. 18-19.

Table 23. EMERGENCY RELIEF REQUIREMENTS FOR SIX DEPARTMENTS OF MEDITERRANEAN COAST[a]

Foodstuffs	OFRRO Basic Relief Ration (Grams per capita per day)	Total Requirements for First Month (Metric Tons)		
		Urban	Rural Supplement[b]	Total
Grains (including flour)	312	22,211	5,553	27,764
Alimentary paste	71	5,054	1,264	6,318
Pulses	113	8,044	2,011	10,055
Meat and cheese	28	1,993	498	2,491
Fats and oils	14	997	249	1,246
Sugar	14	997	249	1,246
Coffee	8	569	142	711
Cocoa	6	427	107	534
Total	566	40,292	10,073	50,365

[a] Pyrénées-Orientales, Aude, Hérault, Bouches-du-Rhône, Var, and Alpes-Maritimes.

[b] 25 percent of basic relief ration.

IV. FACILITIES FOR PROCESSING AND DISTRIBUTION

There is ample evidence that, on the whole, existing facilities for storage, processing, and distribution have been adequate to assure the regular flow of foodstuffs from the farms to urban markets. In transportation, on the other hand, real bottlenecks have developed during the war which will have to be given attention in the event of occupation of the area by Allied forces.

A. Storage Facilities

The reduced legal flow of foodstuffs to urban markets has in all likelihood resulted in considerable underutilization of existing storage facilities during the war years. Grain warehouses are well distributed over the area, with heavy concentration of storage capacity in the ports and large urban centers. Total capacity is more than adequate to handle the peacetime volume of trade. Cold-storage facilities are limited by American standards, but sufficient for the needs of the area.[1] Modern meat refrigeration facilities are available at the public slaughterhouses of Bordeaux, Toulouse, Marseille, Nice, and Lyon.

A large new cold-storage center for fruit exclusively was opened in 1943 at Perpignan.[2] There are large wine storage facilities at Toulouse, Bordeaux, Sète, Marseille; and oil storage facilities at Marseille, Sète, and Avignon.

B. Processing

Food processing facilities are unlikely to be a factor limiting civilian supply in the event of a German withdrawal

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1. For a list of ice and cold-storage plants, see (7), Table XII-4.
2. Paris-Soir, 24 March 1943.

from Southern France. This conclusion is based on the following considerations:

(1) The dispersion of processing capacity among many small plants located close to the raw-material supply makes it appear unlikely that much damage will result from military activity.

(2) The small-scale and primitive character of the industry suggests that little equipment, if any, has been or will be dismantled and shipped to Germany.

Total milling capacity is large. An important official in the French milling industry has estimated that in Southern France, mills operated only at 30 percent capacity even before the war. Flour mills are well distributed throughout the area.[1] A few of these have capacities in excess of fifty thousand tons: three at Marseille, two at Bordeaux, one at Gaillac near Toulouse, two or three at Lyon. Alimentary pastes are produced by several establishments (at Marseille, Lyon, Toulouse; Villeneuve-sur-Tarn (Haute Garonne); Thonon and Albertville (Haute Savoie); Chambéry (Savoie) from hard wheat imported from North Africa.

Creameries, wineries, and distilleries are located at the centers of production.[1] Large oil crushing facilities and margerine plants are concentrated in southern ports, notably Marseille. The domestic olive crop is processed largely in small cooperative units. Consumption of processed meat, vegetables, and fruits in Southern France is negligible. Such canning and meat processing centers[2] as exist are highly specialized (region of Bordeaux, Lyon, Perigueux). A few fish-preserving establishments (sardines and tuna) are located on the Biscay coast.[2]

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1. For location of these plants, see (7), Table XII-4.
2. See (7), Table XII-4.

C. Transportation

Even before the war, transportation facilities were often inadequate for handling peak loads of agricultural produce. Railroad facilities were directed chiefly toward conducting the flow of traffic to and from Paris. In Southern France, the Paris-Lyon-Mediterranean line is the principal artery, carrying the heaviest load. The volume of traffic from Southwestern to Southeastern France has always been light; its intensification in the event of occupation would present major problems.

The rolling stock of the Southern lines is reported to be badly depleted, the shortage of refrigerator cars being particularly acute. Truck transportation is in an even more critical situation, due to lack of spare parts, tires, and fuel. Maximum use is being made of water transportation.

D. Wholesale and Retail Trade[1]

Certain characteristics of the French food trade have added to the usual wartime difficulties of controlling the movement of foodstuffs from the farmer to the consumer.

1. A sizeable portion of the food supply is sold by the farmer directly to the consumer or retailer.

2. The foodstuffs which are channeled through the regular trade at no stage pass through a "bottleneck" of highly concentrated trade organizations (such as for instance the meat packing concerns in the United States). Food processing and the wholesale and retail trade are carried on by a multitude of small firms; large concerns, chain stores, and cooperatives are quite exceptional in this field.

3. Except in the case of wheat, no governmental controls over the flow of foodstuffs existed at the outbreak of the war.

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[1] Based on a report prepared in the Liberated Areas Division, Foreign Economic Administration.

In contrast, Germany went into the war with almost complete government control over food production and distribution.

a. Direct Farmer-to-Consumer Trade. Even in peacetime, a large proportion of the food trade in rural districts and small urban centers consisted of direct farmer-to-consumer transactions. These took the form of farm-to-home deliveries or, more frequently, purchases in the market place. In the larger cities, farmers brought their produce to a central municipally-owned market which was patronized by consumers and small retailers. Stalls were leased to dealers by the municipality.

During the war years, direct farmer-to-consumer transactions assumed added importance, with delivery at the farm largely replacing home delivery. The public markets have become centers of the illegal trade, (marché noir), with prices which only high income groups can regularly afford. "Gray marketing" ("marché de solidarité"), at prices somewhere between the legal maximum prices and those charged at the black market, is generally carried on by way of direct farm contacts and food parcels.

b. Regular Trade. The wholesale trade in France is more specialized than in the United States, and there are fewer large enterprises. As a rule, a wholesaler trades in a small area. In certain regions, groups of small retailers are organized in wholesale purchasing cooperatives, with the individual retailer otherwise retaining his independence.

Livestock, as a rule, is bought by the butcher or wholesaler directly from the farmer and brought to the municipal slaughterhouse; there it is slaughtered for the account of the buyer for a fixed fee. Most of the slaughtering is done in local abattoirs at or near the place of consumption and the carcasses are shipped in trucks, whole or in halves, to the retailers.

Chart 1. AGRICULTURAL SYNDICATES AND COOPERATIVES IN FRANCE[a]

Type of cooperative activity and commodity	Number of syndicates and cooperatives	Percentage of total French crop handled by syndicates and cooperatives	Centers of cooperative agricultural activities	Important cooperative associations on the regional and national levels
Dairies	Butter 450 Gruyère cheese 1800 Total 2300	14 percent	West: Deux-Sèvres, Charente-Inférieure, Vendée, Indre-et-Loire, Jura: Doubs, Jura Alpes du Nord: Savoie, Haute Savoie	Association des laiteries coopératives des Charentes et du Poitou Fédération nationale des coopératives laitières (groups together all dairy cooperatives).
Eggs			West: Charente-Inférieure	Regional cooperative of egg producers of Saint-Jean-d'Angely, Charente-Inférieure ("coopoeufs").
Stocking and sale of cereals	1.105	60-80 percent[d]		Numerous regional federations of cooperatives. Union Nationale Corporative des coopératives de production, de transformation et de vente des céréales
Flour mills	Flour mills 62 Mills combined with bakeries 640			
Oil presses	70		Bouches-du-Rhône, Var Vaucluse, Gard, Drôme, Alpes-Maritimes, Corsica	
Wineries	800[b]	(12 million hectoliters)	Burgundy, Jura, Arbois, Touraine, Yonne, Bordelais, Champagne	Regional Federations grouped together in one National Federation
Fruits and vegetables	More than 100			Fédération nationale des coopératives de fruits, primeurs, fleurs et autres produits agricoles.

(See next page for footnotes)

Chart 1. AGRICULTURAL SYNDICATES AND COOPERATIVES IN FRANCE[a] (cont'd)

Type of cooperative activity and commodity	Number of syndicates and cooperatives	Percentage of total French crop handled by syndicates and cooperatives	Centers of cooperative agricultural activities	Important cooperative associations on the regional and national levels
Sugar refineries	8		In regions producing sugar beets	
Threshing	2924			
	Total number of agricultural cooperatives in France: 7,600[c]			

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a Based on L. Salleron, A. Gault, A. Patier, Les cooperatives agricoles, Paris 1942. The authors are prominently connected with the Peasants' Corporation. Separate data for Southern France were unavailable.

b Comprising 120,000 wine-growers and producing 12 million hectoliters.

c Due to the fact that some cooperatives have more than one function, but are listed under each, this total is smaller than the sum of the separate cooperatives.

d Storing facility of cooperatives: 20-25 million quintals.

The bulk of food retailing is handled by small shops, which tend to be more specialized than in the United States. In cities, for instance, most shops sell only bread and pastries, or only meat products, or only dairy products, or only groceries.

Butcher shops might in turn be specialized in beef, pork, horsemeat, or sausages. Chain stores were developing in the large urban centers. Consumer cooperatives were in existence in Northern and Eastern France but had made little headway in the South.

In view of the reduced flow of foodstuffs during the war years, and the shortage of manpower in agriculture and industry, the government has made some attempts at "concentration" of the food trade. If successful, this policy of reducing the number of middlemen along lines adopted in Germany would not only make manpower available for more essential jobs, but would also simplify the control of food distribution. Indications are, however, that not much progress has been made in this direction.

E. Agricultural Cooperatives[1]

In pre-war France, agricultural cooperatives and syndicates[2] played an important role in the distribution of foodstuffs. Between sixty and eighty percent of the cereals and a large proportion of the dairy products were marketed through cooperatives. Three principal types of agricultural cooperatives may be distinguished:

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[1] See Chart 1.

[2] The distinction between "syndicats" and "coopératives" is only of historical interest. For all practical purposes, the two terms are synonymous.

(1) Cooperatives for the joint purchase of agricultural producer goods.

(2) Cooperatives for agricultural equipment and services (for instance, electrical equipment, threshing equipment, reforestation).

(3) Cooperatives for the preservation, processing, and sale of agricultural products.

Under the Pétain regime the existing agricultural cooperatives as well as their members have been incorporated into the Peasants' Corporation. Their administrative councils are staffed three-fifths with persons elected by the members and two-fifths with members of the local corporative syndicate of the Peasants' Corporation. Some agricultural cooperatives, especially those for cereals and dairy products, have been entrusted with an important function in the system of food distribution as collectors and storing centers. (See Appendix II.) The cooperative movement is represented on the Organizing Committees of the Peasants' Corporation and it is envisaged that a single national federation of cooperatives will be constituted for each group of agricultural commodities.

On the national level, there exists now only one single organization coordinating all purchasing cooperatives, the Fédération Corporative. In the same way there has been created a Fédération Corporative Nationale for stocking, processing, and marketing cooperatives. In addition, nation-wide organizations exist for various agricultural products. It is reported that many national syndicates are collaborating with the Germans, but that the Fédération Nationale Republicaine, an association of small farmers' syndicates, was known in 1940-41 for its anti-German and democratic tendencies.

V. FOOD ADMINISTRATION[1]

A. The Controlling Bodies[2]

1. The Corporative Organization of Agriculture ("Peasants' Corporation"). The one pure fascist innovation in the field of French agriculture has been the establishment of the Corporative Organization of Agriculture (*Organisation corporative de l'agriculture*). In name and in structure it was created in the image of the Italian-type corporation; its functions cover most aspects of farm life, but in the field of production and distribution, of interest in this study, its powers have been restricted to operating on the local level. There, however, they are considerable.

Functions. Set up by a law of 2 December 1940 "to promote and defend the moral, social, and economic interests of peasant families," it is concerned with social (labor relations, rural insurance, rural housing) and occupational (agricultural training, occupational discipline) problems. The powers it possesses in the field of production and distribution, including price fixing, are of a theoretical nature with one exception: on the local level, the Corporative Organization represented by the local *syndic* has an important part in (a) allocating delivery quotas assigned to the community to individual operators and (b) distributing producer goods. On levels higher than the community these functions are not exercised by the Corporative Organization but by regular administrative officers such as mayors and prefects.

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[1] This discussion is based, in the main on the Vichy legislation contained in the *Journal Officiel*, and the Vichy press. On all problems we have received generous advice and active cooperation from FEA.

[2] See Charts 2 and 3.

On the local level, the syndic's standing is often a powerful one, threatening the position of the mayor; in some instances the problem of authority thus divided has been solved by having the syndic appointed mayor. There is every reason to expect that, under Vichy auspices, the syndics will play an increasingly important role in rural life.

Organization. The Corporative Organization has the customary features of fascist bodies. (1) Membership is open to all groups and classes (farmers, laborers, craftsmen, landowners) and is voluntary, but dues must be paid by members and non-members alike. Likewise, corporative regulations bind everybody, regardless of membership. There is only one syndicate for each locality (one or several communes). All agricultural associations are compulsory members. (2) Leadership is established by appointment from above, frequently followed by "elections" at which the appointments may be confirmed or renewed.[1] Thus the local syndic is appointed by regional syndics, in turn appointed by an "organizing commission" under a National Syndic who is appointed by the Minister of Agriculture and Supplies.

At the head of the hierarchy is the National Agricultural Corporative Council (Conseil national corporatif agricole)[2] operating through regional and departmental corporative unions (unions corporatives régionales or départementales) on the corresponding administrative levels.

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1. Such elections were held in December 1943, to confirm the local syndics.
2. The Council met for the first time in Paris in September 1943.

Chart 2. PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY FOR AGRICULTURE AND FOOD SUPPLIES
(Law of 10 November 1943, and arrêté of 15 November 1943)[a]

MINISTER FOR AGRICULTURE AND FOOD SUPPLIES

Personal Cabinet	General Secretariat for Economic and Social Affairs	General Secretariat for Agriculture	General Secretariat for Supply
1. General Inspectorate of Agriculture [Supervision of lower levels]	1. Directorate of Occupational and Social Services [Concerned with Corporative Organization of Agriculture, chambers of agriculture, problems of land tenure, agricultural labor, insurance, family allowances]	1. General Commissioner for Agricultural Resources [Establishes national requirements and assigns delivery quotas to departments]	1. Directorate for Supply of Animal Products a) Subdirectorate of Dairy Products and Meats [incl. poultry products] b) Subdirectorate for Fats
2. General Inspectorate of Food Supplies [Supervision of lower levels]	2. Directorate of Economic Affairs [External relations, prices, marketing, and price adjustments]	2. General Commissioner for Commercial Mobilization	2. Directorate for Supply of Vegetable Products a) Subdirectorate for Fruits and Vegetables b) Subdirectorate for Beverages and Fodder

Continued on following page

Chart 2 continued

3. Service of Negotiations with the Occupying Power

4. Directorate for General Administration of Personnel

5. Service of Transportation

6. Service of Administration and Financial Control of Food Boards [Subsidies to and financial control over food boards]

3. Research and Documentation Service

3. General Directorate for Waters and Forests

4. General Directorate for Rural Engineering and Agricultural Irrigation

5. Directorate of Agricultural Production [Planning, vegetable products, animal products]

6. Directorate for Instruction

3. Directorate for Food-Processing Industries
   a) Subdirectorate of Food-Processing Industries [Alimentary pastes, etc., canned food and fish, coffee, salt, beer, colonial products, sugar]
   b) Subdirectorate of Industrial Raw Materials and Wrappings

4. Directorate of Distribution and Consumption
   a) Subdirectorate for Rationing
   b) Subdirectorate for Ration Cards

5. Directorate for Financial Services and Litigation

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[a] Subdivisions of directorates or equivalent divisions of the Ministry are given only where they are in charge of distribution of agricultural products. Remarks in square brackets [ ] are added to explain the functions of those divisions, the names of which are not self-explanatory.

Chart 3. THE LEVELS OF FRENCH FOOD ADMINISTRATION

Level	Government	Corporative Organization of Agriculture	Food Boards	Purchasing Groups
National	Ministry for Agriculture and Food Supply (see Chart 2)	National Corporative Council, under Minister for Agriculture and Food Supplies Organizing Commission under National Syndic	National Joint Trade Office for Cereals National Joint Trade Committee for Meats Central Committee of the Joint Trade Groups for Dairy Products Central Supply Committees for Individual Commodities Organizing Committees for various food processing industries	National Purchasing Groups for Individual Commodities or Groups of Commodities
Regional	Regional Prefect, Assisted by Regional Advisory Committee Staff: Supervisor of Economic Affairs, Regional Directorate of Agricultural Production, Regional Directorate of Food Supplies, Regional Directorate of Commercial Mobilization	Regional Corporative Agricultural Union, under Regional Delegate General, Assisted by Regional Council	[Regional Level of Central Supply Committee can be established by Minister for Agriculture and Food Supply if there is need for it]	[Regional or interregional level can be established by regional prefect if there is need for it]

Chart 3 continued

Level	Government	Corporative Organization of Agriculture	Food Boards	Purchasing Groups
Departmental	Prefect, Assisted by Departmental Advisory Committee for Allocation which may have specialized sections for the allocation of individual commodities or groups of commodities Staff: Departmental Directorate of Agricultural Services, Departmental Directorate of Food Supplies	Departmental Corporative Agricultural Union, under Departmental Delegate General, Assisted by Departmental Council	Departmental Committee for Cereals Departmental Purchasing and Allocation Group for Meats or Meat Section of Overall Allocation and Purchasing Group Joint Trade Group for Dairy Products Departmental Delegate /of Central Supplies Committees/, Assisted by Advisory Committee	Single Departmental Purchasing Group for all commodities, subdivided into sections for individual commodities
Cantonal	Cantonal Administrative Agent Subordinate: Cantonal Delegate for General Food Supplies Cantonal Purchasing Commission	--	--	--
Communal	Mayor, Assisted by Various Communal Boards	Local Agricultural Syndicate, under Syndic	--	--

Standard statutes were issued for these unions in January 1942. Provision is made for setting up special committees on each level to deal with specific commodities or groups of commodities.

2. The Dual Setup: Government and Food Boards. For the last few years control of distribution, beginning with deliveries at the market or point of first sale generally and ending with purchase by the wholesaler or retailer, has been jointly administered by the regular government agencies and a set of semi-public bodies created by the government and hereafter referred to as Joint Trade Boards (groupements interprofessionnels).[1] What renders the analysis and even a description of the setup difficult is that at any one point of time the picture is rich in overlapping of functions, poor in lines of demarcation and that over the past four years the tasks and powers of the boards have alternately expanded and shrunk (though more so on paper than in fact). Nor is this accidental, since the varying fortunes of the boards reflect the increasing or waning power of the pressure groups behind them.

Further complicating the situation is the fact that any general description is subject to the qualification that the scheme of control for a number of commodities, and the most vital ones at that, deviates significantly from the general rule, and that there exist today five types of boards, differing sufficiently in function and structure to require separate treatment.

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[1] There is no satisfactory English equivalent of the word interprofessionnel. Professions in French includes all occupations, not only the professions in the English sense of the word. In this report interprofessionnel will be translated "Joint Trade," but it should be noted that the food boards normally include representatives of producers, processors, and consumers as well as tradesmen.

Finally, the relation of the government machinery to the Boards has to be described for each administrative level, since it differs according to whether we speak of the national, the regional, the departmental level, etc.

Divided authority, with the Boards being given greater responsibility at one time and being reduced in standing at another, affects all functions: steering production into desired channels, expanding some enterprises and contracting others, allocating delivery quotas to regions, departments, communities, or individual producers, allocating the total product between direct and indirect (processed) human consumption and industrial use, allocating available food supplies between different distributors, determining stockpiling needs, those are the tasks facing both the government and the boards.

In general, and the importance of this phrase has already been pointed out, the boards have least authority in the field of production. Distribution of the product between different uses, too, is primarily a government prerogative. But here, more so than in production, the boards have tended to assume jurisdiction and in the case of wheat, meat, dairy products, vegetable oils, etc. the boards have authority both de jure and de facto.

Control of deliveries, according to assigned delivery quotas, and the organization of actual collecting of the produce (including stockpiling), is, and always has been, a proper function of the boards, even though these tasks are performed under the supervision of the governmental authorities. By granting trade licenses (cartes professionnelles) the boards are in a position to regulate the structure of distribution down to its most minute subdivisions. However it should be noted that the control of the volume of produce going to a particular retailer or wholesaler dealing in rationed commodities is determined by the number of ration coupons he turns in, and it is at the wholesale level that the flowback of ration coupons meets the flow of goods allocated on the basis of quotas determined independently.

Before proceeding to a detailed description of the two systems it is necessary to point out that even though the boards have repeatedly been subject to restrictive legislation, in actual fact their influence upon governmental policy and upon the governmental machinery as such, level by level, is exercised in a way not easily amenable to legislative intervention. In many cases where a civil service official is advised and assisted by the powerful and expert director of one of the food boards, he will hardly be in a position to reject the latter's advice or assistance. The Minister alone may settle disputes between the food boards and his staffs.

While there can be no question as to the fascist antecedents of the "Corporative Organization," the Vichy Boards as such are of a neutral coloration. In fact, the first such board (for wheat) was set up as early as 1936, and two years later, still in pre-Pétain days, a law was passed (11 July 1938) providing the basis on which other boards could be set up. The fact that no boards other than the wheat board were organized prior to the fall of France must not lead one into believing that, as an administrative device, the boards are fascist creations. It is only the make-up of a given board, both with regard to the relative strength of the groups represented and the method of appointment, and the policies it follows which can be assessed politically.

As far as it is possible to generalize on the relationship between government authorities and boards, it would be fair to say that the boards started out with their tasks in the main confined to collecting, stockpiling, and allocating supplies to distributors. They then tended to abuse their powers of allocation. In due course, on the basis of complaints from disadvantaged groups no doubt, the boards' powers were generally curtailed. Governmental agencies, especially the Ministry, were put in charge of drawing up the national plan of allocation, with one exception -- a most vital one -- : the powers of the wheat, meat, and dairy products boards were left untouched. At this time then, governmental agencies generally regulate food production and allocation. Most food boards have charge of the collecting and stocking of the food in accordance with the governmental plan of allocation and under the close supervision of the governmental hierarchy.

3. The Governmental Structure. After a number of organizational changes, brought about by the activities of pressure groups (cf. p.86f.) the administration of foodstuffs is now in the hands of a combined Ministry for Agriculture and Food Supply. Under this Ministry there are four General Secretariats. Of these two are of main interest to us: the General Secretariat for Agriculture which is concerned with the technical direction of agricultural production, and the General Secretariat for

Food Supplies which deals with collection and distribution. The General Secretariat for Agriculture is in turn assisted by two Commissioners -- for Agricultural Resources and for Commercial Mobilization. Regional delivery quotas are fixed by the General Secretariat for Agriculture through these Commissioners.

Since April 1941 the national food administration has been functioning on a *regional* level, represented by seventeen regional prefects. Each of them is assisted in agricultural matters by a Supervisor of Economic Affairs (*Intendant des affaires économiques*) and by a Regional Advisory Committee (*Comité consultatif régional*) consisting of regional officials, producers, dealers, and consumers. The regional prefect is the supervisor of the regional representatives of the Ministry, viz. the Regional Director for General Food Supplies, the Regional Director for Agricultural Production, and the Regional Commissioner for Commercial Mobilization. The delivery quotas assigned to each region by the General Commissioner for Agricultural Resources are sub-divided by departments on this level.

In addition, the regional prefects are given certain general powers; they coordinate the activities of the departmental prefects and they adapt national regulation, for instance with regard to rationing, to the food supplies of their region. In general the activities of the regional level are still in the formative stage, but its importance may be expected to grow.

The regional setup, with some modifications, is repeated on the departmental level. At the top of the hierarchy we find the departmental prefect. He supervises two Departmental Directorates -- Agricultural Services, responsible for the maintenance or increase of production and the supply of producer goods to farmers, and General Food Supplies, dealing with collection and distribution of agricultural products, Among other responsibilities of the Directorate for Agricultural Services is the dividing-up of the delivery quota assigned to the department into delivery quotas for the communities in the department.

The prefect is in general charged with assuring the food supplies of his department, and in this capacity he is supposed to place available surpluses at the disposal of the central authorities or if the department is in a deficit area, request supplementary deliveries from the authorities. In all his tasks the departmental prefect is assisted by a Departmental Advisory Committee for Allocation (comité consultatif départemental de répartition) which may constitute specialized sections for individual products or groups of products. In each section dealers, processors, and consumers must be represented. The prefect may delegate part or all of his powers of allocating a certain product to a member of the section specializing in this product. This arrangement provides another (see above p.82) example of the dominating position of the boards vis-a-vis the government machinery.

In the cantons local representatives of the Departmental Directorates of General Food Supplies cooperate with the Corporative Organization of Agriculture in the collection of products subject to imposition. In addition there exists one or several purchasing commissions (commissions de réception or d'achat) which purchase or requisition foodstuffs.

In the communities the Mayor and various communal boards (evaluation commission for livestock, cereals committee, etc.) are the representatives of the government in the matter of agricultural production and food rationing. Where the local agricultural syndicates of the Corporative Organization of Agriculture are established, the functions of the Mayor with regard to the direction of agriculture are taken over to some extent by the syndic.

The Pressure Groups. The present top structure of the Ministry has been the result of a number of reorganizations. Instead of recounting these moves in detail the following paragraphs are designed to analyze the groups and the motivations responsible for the different kinds of pressure that have been exerted. It is not historical interest which makes such an analysis desirable but the probability that in the event of Allied liberation the same groups can be expected to operate along the same lines of pressure.

Representatives of the farmers in Vichy France emphasize the priority of food production over food distribution. They advocate a combined Ministry for Agriculture and Food Supply which in effect would cater primarily to the farm interests, with control over collection and distribution centered largely in the hands of the old Ministry of Agriculture staff. Urban consumers and tradesmen, on the other hand, demand a separate Ministry for Food Supplies in which collection and distribution of foodstuffs would be controlled by urban interests. The present setup, represented graphically in Chart 2, is a compromise between the two factions. Among the four general secretariats, that for agriculture, apart from its technical functions, directs agricultural production, and through the Commissioners of Agricultural Resources and of Commercial Mobilization establishes delivery quotas to be met by French producers. The existence of these two General Commissioners, side by side with a Directorate of Agricultural Production, in the General Secretariat for Agriculture is a first concession to trade and consumers. The functions of these two General Commissioners overlap with those of the Directorate; the General Commissioners are the new representatives of urban consumers within the traditional part of the Ministry of Agriculture. The General Secretariat for Food Supplies, on the other hand, is in charge not only of distribution but also of collection -- this being the second concession to the interests of the trade and of urban consumers introduced by the legislation of November 1943. In the event of Allied occupation both farmers and urban consumers may try to revise the present compromise in their favor. Pressure will be exerted in two opposite directions, i.e. either to bring about a return to the regime of two separate ministries for agriculture and food supplies, or a transfer of authority over collection to the General Secretariat for Agriculture.

4. The Food Boards. All food boards (with the exception of the organizing committees of industry) created by Vichy follow the same general pattern. They are joint trade (interprofessionnel) boards in the sense that representatives of producers, dealers, and processors of the same commodity (or group of commodities) administer all or part of its flow from the producer to the consumer. Apart from this general characteristic, however, there are notable differences between the various boards of Vichy France.

a. Existing Types of Food Boards. Today there exist side by side the following types of national food boards:

(1) Joint Trade Groups (groupements interprofessionnels):

(2) National Groups for Imports and Allocation (groupements nationaux d'importation et de répartition);

(3) National Allocation Bureaus (bureaux nationaux de répartition);

(4) Central Supply Committees (comités centraux de ravitaillement);

(5) Organizing Committees (comités d'organisation) for various processing industries.

Boards of type (1) operate for the principal commodities such as cereals, meat, dairy products. Type (2) exists for practically all commodities, but functions merely as an executive agency of boards of the other four types. Type (3) has largely disappeared, except for a few survivors for commodities of secondary importance. Type (4) has replaced type (3) for most foodstuffs except those administered by type (1). Type (5) operates for all food processing industries. Appendix 2 groups the commodities for which food boards have been constituted according to the five types of food boards listed above. To understand the differences between the various types of food boards and the controls to which each commodity is subjected, it is essential to review briefly the history of French food boards.

The Joint Trade Groups. Historically the first such board was the National Joint Trade Wheat Office (Office national interprofessionnel du blé) which was set up in 1936. In November 1940 its activities were extended to cover the "secondary cereals," and since that time the Office appears under the name of National Joint Trade Office for Cereals (Office national interprofessionnel des céréales = O.N.I.C.). In 1940 the government further created departmental joint trade groups for two categories, dairy products and agricultural producers' goods (fertilizers, fodder, seeds, insecticides, etc.). With regard to dairy products a central (national) committee was created at the same time as the departmental groups, but for the producers' goods this was not done until June 1941. In January 1941 a departmental and national organization was created for fresh-water fish, but apart from this late comer the joint trade groups created in 1941 and 1942, i.e. those for vegetable oils, sugar beets, horses and mules, and fruits used for cider, appeared on the national level and had no branches in the departments.

It is hardly possible to differentiate, clearly and in principle, between these joint trade groups (groupements interprofessionnels) on the one hand, and the national allocation bureaus and central supply committees on the other. The joint trade group for each commodity is governed by a special law; joint trade groups in general have never been made the subject of general legislation. Boards of the two other types (national allocation bureaus and central supply committees), on the other hand, are all formed on the same legal pattern. One common characteristic can, however, be gathered from the various legislative acts creating new joint trade groups. Unlike boards of the two other types, joint trade groups have power to direct and coordinate production. With regard to allocation and distribution, their functions vary over a wide range. The Joint Trade

Group for Fresh Water Fish, for instance, is merely an executive organ of the national allocation bureau, now of the central supply committee, for fish. The Central Committee of the Joint Trade Group for Dairy Products, on the other hand, was expressly given the powers of a national allocation bureau.

Groups for Imports and Allocation. For most rationed commodities it was felt at first that in the main normal trade channels should be maintained and that a general control by mixed corporations, usually called National or Departmental Groups for Imports and Allocation, was needed. At present, these semi-public groups duplicate the activities of more powerful boards, the central supply committees, and have become their executive and subordinate agencies.

National Allocation Bureaus. Only one week after the recognition of these National Groups for Imports and Allocation, the Vichy government issued legislation providing for a much stricter control of foodstuffs. The formation of national allocation bureaus for essential foodstuffs was authorized by a law of 27 September 1940 concerning the organization of allocation of agricultural products and foodstuffs. They were placed under the Minister for Agriculture or the Secretary of State for Food Supplies (the two offices were separate at that time) and were to deal exclusively with acquisition, trade, stocking, and selling. Agricultural production did not fall into the province of the bureaus. Subsequently such national allocation bureaus, with departmental allocators, were set up for a great number of commodities. By now, most of them have been replaced by central supply committees and only a few unimportant survivors are still operating.

Central Supply Committees. Some national allocation bureaus abused the allocating powers granted to them. It was felt particularly that in the allocation of foodstuffs, they favored large businesses and discriminated against the smaller ones. A basic law of 23 October 1941, on the organization of food supplies on the national, regional, and departmental level, was designed to remedy this situation by introducing the following reforms:

(1) The national allocation bureaus were to be transformed into central supply committees subject to strict control by government commissioners. The plan of allocation is now taken out of the hands of the central supply committees and drawn up by governmental agencies; the central supply committees are henceforth limited to an advisory and preparatory function in the allocation of food supplies.

(2) The representation of producers on the central supply committees was reduced in favor of tradesmen, producers, and representatives of the public.

(3) Commercial operations connected with the collection of all foodstuffs are reserved for departmental purchasing groups (of which there is only one for all commodities within the department) under the direction of national purchasing groups differentiated according to commodities.

The law did not interfere with the National Joint Trade Office for Cereals, the National Joint Trade Committee for Meat, the Central Committee of Joint Trade Boards for Dairy Products, or the other joint trade groups. In the course of the years 1941-42 central supply committees for a number of commodities replaced the former national allocation bureaus for these foodstuffs. During 1943 few new central supply committees were formed; the government concentrated instead on the development of existing organizations.

Organizing Committees. Food processing operates along lines somewhat different from those prevailing in agriculture. A law published on 18 August 1940 concerning the preliminary organization of industrial production provided for organizing committees for each industrial branch. Many such committees were set up for food processing industries in the years following the publication of this law and placed under the authority of the Minister for Agriculture and Food Supplies. Apart from their strictly industrial functions, these committees normally grant trade licenses (carte professionnelle) and allocate agricultural supplies among the various branches and members of the particular industry. Where joint trade groups (groupements interprofessionnels) are in existence, it is usually this group (and not the organizing committee) which performs these two functions; in this case the organizing committee is limited to its strictly industrial functions. Where an organizing committee exists side by side with a central supply committee, the former normally allocates the agricultural raw materials while the latter organizes the collection and stocking of the processed product.

b. Central Organization of Food Boards. The various food boards discussed in the preceding section differ in the setup of their central (national) organization.

Direction of Food Boards. All food boards are subject to the supervision of the Minister for Agriculture and Food Supplies. The boards for cereals and meats are administered each by a president and an administration committee (comité de gestion). The Joint Trade groups normally have, in addition to the president and the administration committee, an advisory committee (comité consultatif). The same applies to national allocation bureaus and central supplies committees.

Relative Strength of Groups. On the administration committees of most boards the producers either have one more vote or the same number of votes as processors and dealers together. One of the changes introduced by the substitution of central supplies committees for national allocation bureaus was, however, that, on the administration committees of the former, trade combined with industry is considerably stronger than the producers and that the general public is represented (above p. 91).

Appointment to the Food Boards. The directing and ordinary members of the food boards are appointed by the Minister for Agriculture and Food Supplies. Inasmuch as in most cases the Minister is free in the selection of presidents and other directing members, the distribution of interests between producers, processors, dealers, and consumers among the ordinary members of the committees may not always be indicative of the true relation of strength. Moreover the Minister is entirely free in his appointments to the organizing committees of the food processing industries. It is often stated in the press that in the form of organizing committees the trusts have assumed exclusive control over French industry.

c. Regional and Departmental Levels of Food Boards. Certain food boards exist on the national level only and have no dependencies in the départements (above p. 89).

With regard to most other food boards, food administration on the regional level has made little headway. Most of the laws organizing the administration of a given commodity provide that a regional dependency of the central food board can be established. If constituted it serves as liaison between the central and departmental organizations and coordinates the activities of the latter.

The food board structure is much further developed on the departmental tnan on the regional level. The different types of boards are represented in different ways: the joint trade groups, such as the Cereals Office and Dairy Products Group, function through departmental committees. Departmental allocators represent those national allocation bureaus that are still in existence and, assisted by advisory committees, they are in charge of allocation and distribution of foodstuffs within the department.

We find central supply committees operating through departmental delegates, again assisted by advisory committees. In general the reduction of the influence of producers on the central supply committees introduced by the reforms of October 1941 (above p. 91) does not apply to the departmental level. Finally the creation of departmental purchasing boards in charge of commercial operations connected with the collection of agricultural products has already been mentioned among the reforms of October 1941 (above p.91).

d. Functions of Food Boards. The food boards are financed by special contributions assessed on the distributors and processors. All food boards organize and supervise the collection of the commodity which they administer. All advise on applications for trade licenses (cartes professionnelles) and keep records of licenses refused, withdrawn, or granted. All food boards assist the governmental machinery in drawing up the census of requirements and supplies as well as in the preparation of the national plan of allocation. Several food boards go further than this. The National Allocation Bureaus, to the extent to which they are still in existence, are in charge not only of commercial operations connected with the collection of the commodities but also of allocating them on the national and departmental levels between different types of users (wholesalers, processors). They take care of the acquisition, allocation, trade, stocking, and selling of the commodity. The organizing committees allocate agricultural raw materials among the members of their industry. The joint trade groups likewise control the allocation of the foodstuffs which they administer, and they usually add to their other functions the direction and coordination of production..

How are the functions of the food boards divided between their national and lower levels? The national boards are in direct contact with the central governmental machinery and are empowered to bind, through general regulations approved by the government, any member of their trade. The departmental boards and delegates, on the other hand, are in touch with the individual members of their trade inasmuch as they apply the regulations issued by the national organizations to the particular condition in their département and especially advise the governmental machinery on applications for trade licenses (cartes professionnelles). Only holders of appropriate trade licenses are entitled to buy from the producer or take any other part in the process of distribution. Most food boards grant a smaller or greater number of specialized trade licenses (collectors, wholesalers, processors, sellers of unprocessed products to the consumer, general retailers, specialized retailers) which limit the holder to one limited operation. By granting trade licenses with an ever finer breakdown for the various stages of distribution, the departmental committees regulate the market down to the finest ramifications of the distributing process.

B. The Administration of Food Rationing[1]

Rationed Foodstuffs. Rationing of commodities began after the Fall of France. At the present time the following commodities are subject to nationwide specific rationing: bread, flour, meat and meat products, fats, sugar, coffee mixture, chocolate and sweets, rice, alimentary pastes, cheese, wine, and whole milk. There is no point rationing of foodstuffs in France.[2]

Rationing Authorities. The determination of legal rations for a given period is the business of the Minister for Agriculture and Supplies. Towards the end of each month he issues an arrêté published in the Journal Officiel, containing basic rations for the following month. The Minister may grant supplementary rations to inhabitants of large cities (generally over 75,000 inhabitants). Small urban centers between 15,000 and 75,000 inhabitants may be granted supplements by the regional and departmental prefects. The latter also have authority to cut down rations if local supplies are insufficient and to determine the form (oil, butter, etc.) in which the basic fats ration is distributed in the area under their control. The prefects likewise administer rationing of locally rationed foodstuffs (fresh fruit and vegetables, etc.)

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[1] This section is based largely on "Food Rationing in France," a document issued by the Ministry of Economic Warfare, dated 6 July 1943.

[2] It is reported that locally there exists point rationing of fresh vegetables.

On the local level, the mayors are in charge of food rationing. It is at the town hall that the individuals receive the various ration cards.

Types of Ration Cards. French food rationing authorities issue three different types of cards:

(1) the individual food card (*carte individuelle d'alimentation*)

(2) the half-yearly sheet of coupons (*feuille semestrielle de coupons*)

(3) several ticket sheets (*feuilles de tickets*) for various commodities.

The first of these cards is in the nature of an identification and is issued by the town hall (*mairie*). On application to the town hall, the bearer of the individual food card (1) is given the half-yearly sheet of coupons (2) which is pasted *inside* the individual food card. The sheet contains a set of eleven coupons (numbers 0-10) for each of the six months. Most of these coupons are used directly for the purchase of foodstuffs. The coupons for bread, meat, milk, and "miscellaneous foodstuffs," on the other hand, must be exchanged each for a ticket sheet (3) for the particular commodity. This procedure makes it possible to declare the tickets for perishable foodstuffs valid for periods of less than a month and to include hitherto unrationed foodstuffs among the "miscellaneous foodstuffs."

Differential Rationing. As explained above (pp.57-61) certain classes of producers receive differential rations adapted to their particular needs. Rural consumers receive smaller meat and fat rations than urban consumers. The official explanation is that rural consumers are in a better position to supply themselves with unrationed foodstuffs. In fact it is a tacit admission that such consumers have ready access to extra supplies of rationed food.

Local and Seasonal Rationing. Potatoes are rationed only in the urban areas; in wintertime, householders are encouraged to lay in a stock of 50 or 100 kilograms bought directly from the farmers. Local rationing of other (nationally unrationed) foodstuffs is left to local authorities. In Lyon, for example, control cards are issued for fruits and vegetables. In other cases certain tickets of the "miscellaneous foodstuffs" card are used for purposes of local rationing.

Registration of Consumers and Retailers. In June 1943 an important innovation was introduced into French food administration. Consumers of a great number of commodities now have to register with retailers of their own choice and retailers must register with wholesalers. Registration of customers affords a constant check on the movements of the population and keeps the authorities informed of the requirements for each locality. The commodities in question are: butter, cheese, edible oils, coffee mixture, chocolate, wine, meat, eggs, jams, alimentary pastes, potatoes, fruits, vegetables and fish. Usually the registration may be changed after a period of six months. With regard to wines the regional and departmental prefects can limit the number of registered customers which a retailer is obliged to serve. This ceiling number is determined on the basis of the turnover during the first six months of the years 1939 and 1941.

The Flowback of Ration Cards and the Allocation of Supplies. No legal purchase of rationed food can be made without surrendering to the seller the appropriate number of ration coupons or tickets. The retailer, in turn, obtains his supplies on the wholesale market on the basis of the ration tickets handed to him by his customers. Here the direct control of food distribution through the flowback of ration coupons ends. Wholesalers, processors, slaughterers, etc. receive their supplies through action by the regular allocating authorities (governmental agencies or allocating food boards). These allocating authorities grant vouchers (known as bons de réapprovisionnement, bons d'abattage, etc.) on the basis of ration tickets surrendered.

Restaurants, etc. Restaurants require the surrender of ration tickets and are supplied with rationed foodstuffs corresponding to their average clientele. Workers' canteens and communal restaurants ("rescos"), the number of which is on the increase, are given certain priorities with regard to unrationed foodstuffs. "Family parcels" containing a maximum of 25 kilograms of unrationed foodstuffs may be sent to urban consumers by relatives and friends in the country.[1]

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1. For the various consumer categories and rations in effect at the present time, see IV.

C. The Administration of Food Prices.[1]

Agencies. Prices of agricultural products are determined by different agencies of the Vichy government according to the channels through which they are marketed. For agricultural products sold directly by the producers to consumers and for colonial foodstuffs, the Ministry of Economics and Finance and the Ministry of Agriculture and Supplies act jointly. Other foods with a national market are sold at prices determined by the Minister of Finance. A limited number of commodities sold within the limits of one département or on local markets are controlled by the prefects. For other commodities a ministerial order may delegate price fixing powers to the prefects. All prefectoral orders determining a price must be submitted to the Ministry for approval. The ministers are advised by the Central Price Committee (Comité central des prix) presided over by the General Secretary for Economic Questions in the Ministry of Economics and Finance, and the prefects by regional and departmental price committees. Most food boards collect information concerning the prices of foodstuffs administered by them and suggest changes to the Central Price Committee.

Methods. There are two principal methods of fixing producer prices. In one method, a weighted national average of the several domestic and import prices is computed and quoted on a nationwide basis; cost differentials are adjusted by the Office de compensation et peréquation by means of a system of subsidies and reimbursements. This method is applied for instance, to potatoes, dried vegetables, rice, and vegetable oil. The second procedure consists in fixing a price without regard to any previous level, with the purpose of stimulating production. Whichever method of price fixing is used, wholesale and retail margins are rigidly controlled. The prefects have an important part in determining the prices on the various levels of distribution (wholesale, retail).

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[1] This section is based on Louis Franck, French Price Control from Blum to Pétain, Washington, D. C., 1942 and a manuscript entitled "Price Control in France" prepared in the FEA.

In practice, the price policies of the Vichy government have been concerned mainly with stimulating agricultural production while the relation of prices to prevailing wages has remained a secondary consideration. Consequently buying even at legal prices involves serious hardships for important sections of the urban population.

Enforcement. All price regulations and decisions are published in the weekly Bulletin Officiel des Services des Prix. Retail establishments are required to display prices; manufacturers, and wholesalers must justify on every invoice how the price is computed. Compliance with price regulations is enforced by a small and insufficient staff of agents appointed for this purpose. Infraction of price regulations committed by consumers in an attempt to provide their families with the necessities of life are dealt with rather lightly. Violations by manufacturers, producers, and middlemen for pecuniary gains are subject to administrative and judicial penalties, involving seizure of the goods or their monetary equivalent. If the violation is not serious, a fine may be the only penalty. In case of a serious offense, the Minister of Economics and Finance or the prefects may order the offender's business to be closed for a definite or indefinite period. The prefect, advised by the price committees, decides whether a violation is to be prosecuted before the courts. Judicial penalties include fines up to two million francs, prison terms up to five years, and the closing down of the offender's business.

D. Grievances

1. The first requisite of a workable system of food distribution control during wartime is that the government must be able to assure the collection of foodstuffs from the farm. This the Vichy government has not been able to do.

The personnel of the Peasant Corporation (Corporative Organization of Agriculture) is more collaborationist than that of most Vichy organizations concerned with foodstuffs. The Peasant Corporation has had little opportunity of operating in its own field, that of educating the French agricultural population and of governing relations between agricultural employers and laborers. Instead, the Corporation, and especially its local agents, the syndics, have acted as subordinates of the Ministry for Agriculture and Supplies, dividing production quotas, distributing agricultural supplies, and performing similar tasks of an emergency character. The French farmer has resisted compulsory organization with much success and there are indications that in many farming areas the Peasant Corporation is little more than a paper organization. In summary it may be said that the Peasant Corporation is an outright fascist organization and performs a useful economic function only on its lowest level.

2. While the Peasant Corporation is under attack from the farmers, the farmers themselves and the prefects are blamed for many shortcomings by the urban consumers. As in other occupied European countries, many peasants are sabotaging the government's food delivery program. The reasons for this attitude are varied: the lure of high black-market profits, distrust in the government and the currency, the fear of German requisitioning, and the support of relatives and friends. Furthermore, as delivery quotas are based upon quantity rather than upon quality and grade, the growers and the producing areas keep the best grades for themselves and send the lower grades to the large consumption centers or to deficit areas.

3. The prefectoral and local administration is often accused of mismanagement with regard to delivery quotas. It is said that prefects, mayors, and syndics are lax in notifying their subordinates and the individual producers of the amounts to be delivered. In many cases farmers are "under-imposed" or manage to have their quotas lowered by powerful interventions. Even where adequate quotas are imposed, deliveries are often not enforced. The result is that large quantities of uncollected foodstuffs flow into the Black Market.

4. High self-suppliers' rations and other "free" foodstuffs are loopholes through which foodstuffs pass in the Black Market. The Vichy system of delivery quotas is based on the principle that anything above the amounts imposed is free. Wine growers are reliably reported to retain as much wine for their own consumption as they consumed in 1938. Potato growers who have delivered their quotas are entitled to sell as they please an amount equal

to 5 percent of their previously delivered quota. For any deliveries or guarantee of deliveries in excess of his quota the grower is permitted to sell an equal amount on the free market.

5. The family parcel system, although legal, is another loophole for Black Market operations. This system permits growers to send packages of certain kinds of foods to relatives or friends. Theoretically the parcels must be gifts, but actually most of them are paid for, generally at far above legal prices. The abuses of this system have become so widespread that tighter restrictions have had to be established. A recent estimate says that the provinces send 25,000 to 30,000 family and express-rate parcels to Paris daily.

6. "Prefectoral autarchy" is mentioned as another source of Black Market operations. The prefects are frequently mentioned as giving high priority to the need of the department or region under their control and doing everything in their power to block exports to other departments, even of surplus foodstuffs, especially of meat, cheese, potatoes, and vegetables. Food thus blocked can easily be introduced into the Black Market. Attempts by the central authorities to break this practice have been of little avail.

7. All agencies concerned with the allocation of foodstuffs come in for a great deal of criticism. The Vichy administration proclaims the principle that problems of allocation should be handled by governmental agencies and not by food boards. In practice, however, exceptions to that principle are general. The effect is that the integrated chains and the large business outlets (including restaurants) which are heavily represented on the boards get more merchandise than small independent retailers.

The activities of the organizing committees of the food processing industries which have full power over the allocation of raw materials among the members of their industry have led to a similar result. The arbitrary handling of allocations by these committees has given rise to unanimous criticism in the daily press. Preferential allocation of foodstuffs to large firms may, in an emergency period, be the most economical way of processing and distributing but they arouse the antagonism of all small firms which depend on allocations in order to stay in business.

8. The rationing system as such seems to be fairly satisfactory. There are no complaints about the established categories of consumers. Criticism usually refers to the fact that the legal rations often cannot be purchased. It is reliably reported that there are from one to three million ration cards outstanding in excess of the population. The trade in bread thrives on forged and stolen ration tickets. There is some resentment against the system of compulsory registration of consumers with retailers. Most of these are probably retailer complaints, but consumers registered at small stores object that they cannot shop around.

9. The administration of price control is often attacked for raising the producer prices of agricultural products without at the same time authorizing an increase in the price of processed foods. Milk and cheese are a case in point.

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VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

These recommendations are based on the following assumptions: (1) During the emergency period, with hostilities still proceeding, food distribution will be under the direct control of the Allied military forces. (2) After this period, the administration of food distribution and food production will be turned over to democratically constituted French civil authorities. It may be anticipated, however, that for some time during this second period, the representatives of the British and American authorities will be called upon for advice and consultation in all matters pertaining to the magnitude and timing of food shipments or otherwise affecting the functioning and safety of their armed forces. It is therefore imperative that the broad outlines of a United Nations'food program be developed in close cooperation between the Anglo-American and French authorities.

A. Emergency Relief

If the reoccupation of Southern France is effected by Allied landings on the Mediterranean shore, the liberating forces will be faced at once with an emergency feeding problem of major proportions. The civil administration will not only encounter the usual difficulties of temporarily supplying the urban population until the flow of foodstuffs from the surrounding countryside can be reestablished. Along the Mediterranean shore, the countryside itself is deficient in some staple foodstuffs and on the whole does not produce a surplus over rural caloric requirements. However, as the Allied beachheads are expanded into the hinterland, the problem of provisioning the Mediterranean coast will be gradually alleviated. The cities of Toulouse, Bordeaux, and Lyon have ready access to agricultural surplus areas, so that supplementary shipments to these centers may be greatly reduced as soon as the regular flow of foodstuffs from country to city can be reestablished.

The liberating forces should be prepared to feed the entire urban population of the Mediterranean departments, and part of the rural inhabitants, at a 2,000 calorie level for a period of several months. Total requirements for this purpose are shown in Table 23. During this period, the need for additional shipments may be determined by a survey of the situation in each locality. The Mediterranean coast is normally dependent on imports for part of its food requirements, and a minimum volume of shipments will therefore have to be maintained throughout the period of occupation.

During the period immediately following occupation, while the cities are still in confusion and disorder, the occupation authorities will have to rely largely on direct distribution through food lines, from Army canteens, etc. If possible, ration coupons should be collected and noted in order to prevent duplicate receipts. Food distribution during these days might be in the form of complete rations packed to include a minimum, well-balanced diet. If possible, however, foods which are unfamiliar to the inhabitants should be distributed only through communal kitchens and restaurants. Foods distributed in unprepared form should be confined to staples such as flour, pulses, lard, and vegetable fats, and perhaps canned milk or milk powder for children.

An effort will be made to reestablish in the shortest possible time the normal flow of foodstuffs from the countryside to urban markets. Even around cities along the Mediterranean coast, surpluses of vegetables, fruits, wine, milk, and other foodstuffs can be obtained for urban consumption, in exchange for relatively small shipments of flour, bread, sugar, textiles, and agricultural supplies needed in the rural areas. Since it is to be expected that rail transportation around large urban centers will be thoroughly disrupted and will not be restored to full efficiency for some time after occupation, the liberating forces will have to rely largely on motor transport and animal-drawn vehicles to supply foodstuffs to the cities.

The size of the relief problem will depend on the time of year in which the occupation takes place. If given enough time for evacuation, the Germans may be depended upon to remove or destroy a large part of the available stocks, so that no substantial alleviation of food shortages from local supplies can be expected until the new harvest comes in.[1]

B. Mobilization of Area Supplies

As Allied beachheads are expanded and agricultural surplus areas are occupied, the liberating forces will be faced with the problem of restoring and increasing the flow of these surpluses to the urban centers and agricultural deficit regions. A successful solution of this problem will greatly reduce the need for food imports.

However, any measures which will lead to the diversion of substantial quantities of foodstuffs to the black market or which in effect will amount to approval of the existing black market structure should be avoided. Any relaxation of distribution controls, under the guise of "restoring economic freedom," any general price increases for essential foodstuffs would inevitably result in great inequities in food distribution and widespread popular unrest. Demands for the relaxation of price and rationing regulations which will undoubtedly be raised by various pressure groups should be resisted; price and rationing controls should be strengthened, not weakened.

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[1] Cf. Table 3 for planting and harvesting periods.

A program to reduce illegal retention and marketing of foodstuffs should be based on the following two fundamental considerations.

1. In general the food policy for the immediate post-occupation period should be guided by the expectation of a less than perfect solution of the fiscal and currency problems of the country. It is to be anticipated that a substantial amount of excess purchasing power will continue to feed a potentially large black market.

2. The basic difficulties created by conditions of scarcity and an unstable currency have to be reconciled with our desire gradually to replace the system of forced collection and distribution by a system of voluntary exchanges. This basic policy suggests that less use be made by the liberating authorities of production and delivery quotas and the like, and more reliance be placed on economic and political incentives.

A program of this kind should be implemented by a combination of economic, administrative, and political measures.

(1) The arrival of relief shipments in the urban areas and the whole program of emergency feeding should be well publicized. Evidence that food is available and that additional shipments are expected will tend to discourage hoarding and reduce the demand for black-market goods. However, the effectiveness of food shipments in calling forth domestic food supplies will be limited where inflation or the fear of inflation are prevalent.

(2) After years of war and progressive inflation, most farmers lack faith in the monetary system, fear that no goods can be acquired with money, and will therefore be reluctant at first to surrender foodstuffs in exchange for money. They will, however, be willing to barter substantial quantities of foodstuffs in return for relatively small amounts of industrial goods. In practice, certificates may be issued which entitle the farmer to purchase a certain quantity of industrial goods. To facilitate transactions, a point system may be devised for this purpose which could be used to supplement (or even replace) the monetary transactions. In this fashion, the distribution to farmers of industrial consumer goods (household and yard goods), of foodstuffs needed by farmers (flour, sugar, coffee, etc.) and of producers' goods (seeds, fertilizer, sprays, fuel, implements, and repair parts) would be tied closely to the program of food procurement. To many of the larger farmers, gold will be a welcome exchange good. Gold should be used to the greatest possible extent, since it makes minimum demands on shipping space. The legal flow of some strategic foodstuffs from farms to urban

centers may be further increased by a program of subsidies and/or changes in the structure of relative prices of farm products. Direct human consumption of crops should be so favored against uses for fodder, and production of dairy products in preference to meat production. Bonuses for immediate delivery should be retained. Where price increases are necessary to maintain or increase production, these should be absorbed by subsidies. An effort should be made to keep down retail prices of essential foodstuffs.

(3) To the extent that the program outlined under (2) is successful, the quota system of compulsory deliveries will become less important as an instrument of food procurement. Nevertheless, a close check on the production of individual farms should be maintained, and obvious discrepancies between estimated production on the one hand and deliveries plus probable farm requirements on the other hand should be investigated.

(4) The self-suppliers' rations are unenforceable and should be abolished. Wartime experience has shown that farmers will retain what they need despite legal restrictions. Therefore, continuance of such rations offers no positive advantage whereas their abolition may have psychological effects which may facilitate collection and distribution.

On the other hand, any foodstuffs produced over and above the food, seed, and authorized feed requirements of the producer should be made subject to collection by licensed dealers and appropriate penalties inflicted for all transactions outside controlled channels. This arrangement would make it possible to indict any person on evidence of non-controlled transaction and would stop all the buying done by "collectivités" (groups of consumers) which has caused much irritation. An exception may be made for family food parcels, but these should be restricted to the producer's immediate family (parents, children, brothers, sisters).

(5) The equitable distribution of essential foodstuffs is a prerequisite for the successful prosecution of the war. In particular, it is recommended that the rations prevailing under the Vichy regime be fully honored almost from the start.

Food imports required for this purpose amount to 170,000 metric tons of flour annually (or their equivalent in terms of wheat), 114,000 metric tons of sugar, and 7,000 metric tons of fats and oils,[1] or a total of 290,000 metric tons. However, since a surplus of fats and oils will probably be available in North and West Africa, the shipment of fats may be readily increased to about 72,000 metric tons.[1] With these shipments, (about 350,000 metric tons per annum), and given a tolerably efficient distribution of the available area supplies, the diet that could be provided -- 3,200 calories to the average rural inhabitant, and 2,550 calories to the average urban consumer -- would be more than adequate to meet essential requirements. It would still be adequate if the proposed sugar imports, or even the imports of fats and oils are cut in half, or if the proposed imports of wheat or flour were reduced by one-fourth.

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[1] Plus 30,000 metric tons of fats needed for industrial purposes (principally soap).

In addition, it is suggested that for reasons of morale, consideration be given to the importation of coffee, tea, and cocoa at about 50 percent of the pre-war level. For Southern France, this would involve annual shipments of about 30,000 metric tons of raw coffee, 200 metric tons of tea, and 7,000 metric tons of raw cocoa. Additional shipments of coffee, if practicable, may be used to advantage for the purpose of mobilizing domestic food supplies of a more bulky nature.

With regard to the timing of imports, shipments of wheat will be needed most in the initial phases of the invasion, and generally in the late spring and early summer, when domestic supplies are normally nearing exhaustion. The seasonal requirements for meat imports are highest between February and April; those for fish between November and May. Citrus fruits normally enter southern ports between November and April.

(6) The above recommendation should be qualified by the following consideration. In the beginning, the institution and effective operation of a broad economic program devoted to assuring a guaranteed minimum ration to every Frenchman will be very difficult. It is important, on the other hand, that a system instituted by the United Nations' authorities work. Therefore, no rations should be set which cannot be met. If there are any doubts that the rations can be met, it is preferable to set the rations initially at a low level and subsequently to raise them, rather than to proceed in the reverse fashion.

(7) As long as essential foodstuffs are scarce, the present system of specific and differential rationing should be retained. In the poorer sections of the cities, in factories, and in schools, communal feeding facilities should be provided throughout the occupation period. A new consumers' census should be taken as soon as practicable.

(8) It is important that the members of the United Nations' forces respect the price and rationing regulations which the new government is attempting to maintain.

(9) The economic program of the liberating forces should be widely publicized through the radio, the press, and proclamation, in an attempt to convince the farm population and food dealers of the probability that formerly scarce foodstuffs and other essential living items are now becoming available. Stressing the point that the new regulations are elements in the program of a new stable and popular government concerned with the welfare of all its citizens, should also contribute to checking inclinations toward illegal retention.

(10) In the administrative field, licensing of dealers and full control of the flow-back of coupons up to the wholesale level should be retained. The compulsory registration of consumers with retailers, however, has given rise to numerous complaints and it seems questionable whether the administrative convenience which this system affords outweighs its social and economic disadvantages.

The food-boards should be retained substantially in their present functions, but consumer representation and governmental control in these boards need to be strengthened. Furthermore, the food boards should be shorn entirely of the power over allocation where such powers have been delegated to them. This function should be transferred to civil servants.

The Corporative Organization of Agriculture may be abolished entirely without affecting production and distribution controls. Its regular functions should revert to the reconstituted cooperatives and trade unions. Its emergency functions, now exercised by the local syndics, (allocation of production quotas and agricultural supplies) should be turned over to the communal administration or to democratically constituted local committees.

Strong pressure should be exercised by the central authorities to break the practice of departmental and regional prefects to block exports of surplus foodstuffs.

Care should be taken to restore the machinery for food collection and distribution to democratic control, at least on the local level, and to facilitate changes in personnel wherever individuals in charge do not enjoy the confidence of the membership or the population at large. In particular, persons generally known to have misused their responsibility by participation in corrupt collection and black-market activities should be dismissed. If punishment must be meted out for particularly flagrant cases of corruption and black marketing, it should be severe and be given full publicity.

C. Agricultural Rehabilitation

An immediate effort should be made by the liberating authorities to increase agricultural production in the next crop year. The timely importation of a relatively small amount of seeds, fertilizer, and machinery will suffice to restore crop yields to pre-war levels, and will thereby save many times their weight in foodstuffs in the following year.

In spite of the heavy drains upon French manpower since the beginning of the war, no serious difficulties in recruiting agricultural labor are anticipated. Arrangements must perhaps be made to make supplementary manpower (prisoners of war, Italian laborers, etc.) available for the cereal, potato, wine, and fruit harvests.[1] Among seed requirements, those for seed potatoes and vegetable seeds are the most urgent.[2]

Southern France should be provided with at least as much phosphate as was imported before the war. By October, about 80,000 metric tons (in terms of pure phosphoric oxide) should be made available from North Africa. In fact, in view of the ease of communications and the ample supplies available in North Africa, phosphate imports equal to the 1928-29 level of 140,000 metric tons (pure phosphoric oxide equivalent) may be justified. Some of these imports may have to be in the form of manufactured superphosphate. Domestic manufacture will depend on the facilities that will be available to the Allies, and on imports of sulphur from Sicily or pyrites from Spain. Efforts should be made to step up the production and imports of nitrogenous fertilizers. It is true that a large part of the nitrate production capacity of the area may have been destroyed by the retreating Germans; but the plants which may be left or which can be restored to operation can probably be devoted to a large extent to the production of fertilizers. The situation with respect to potash will be difficult, if Southern France is cut off from the Alsatian mines; small amounts can probably be imported from Spain.

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[1] For harvesting periods, see Table 3.

[2] The quantities of seed per hectare are shown in Table 4.

Copper sulphate and other sprays require relatively little shipping space but will be in short supply for some time to come. Supplies should be made available so far as this is practicable; but in weighing this need against other demands on Allied productive capacity and shipping space, it should be kept in mind that an early rehabilitation of French viticulture is not vital from the point of view of French food supplies during the military period.

A census should be taken of the agricultural machines that may be available, to insure their efficient use through machine pools. It is believed that about half of the agricultural machines and trucks are at present immobilized for lack of repair parts. Requirements for repair parts should be listed and should receive high priority. Fuel and lubricants and small implements should also be made available at an early date. The use of gasoline-alcohol mixtures for motor fuel should be continued. When imports of farm machinery become possible, it should preferably be shared out through pools or machine and tractor stations, or rented on a custom basis, to insure maximum use.

Among miscellaneous agricultural supplies, high priority should be given to binder twine, rope, crates, nails for crates, jute bags, packing paper, tarpaulin, and metal strips from which barrel hoops can be made.

The movement of foodstuffs and agricultural supplies has a high claim on transportation facilities.

Even during the early phases of occupation, if they fall into a season when it is important to move supplies from the farms, the military authorities should make every effort to facilitate this movement. In any event, minimum requisitions should be made of farm equipment which can be used for the transportation of foodstuffs. Indeed, army vehicles should be made available whenever possible. In the longer run, trucks, tires, and fuel for food transportation should have high priority.

The food shortage in the coastal regions could be greatly alleviated if a large number of the smaller fishing craft could be reassembled and reequipped. Fishing boats and tackle could be repaired or manufactured locally, and a quick partial recovery of the fishing industry could be encouraged by subsidies, higher prices, or premiums in kind.

The agricultural production program should be geared to wartime needs. Recent efforts toward increasing the self-sufficiency of the area will have to be continued for some time, with emphasis on crops for direct human consumption in preference to livestock production. Even though herds will probably have been reduced by German requisitions and slaughterings and as a consequence of military operations, no effort to restock should be made in the military period. No feed imports are recommended for the military period, except so far as concentrates can be made available from the crushing residues of imported oil seeds. These oil concentrates should be used for dairy cows exclusively. On the average, every four pounds of concentrates will result in a one-gallon

(4.5 litres) increase in milk production. Work animals should have high priority on other fodder. Resumption of imports of vegetable fats should make it possible to use less milk for butter production, more as fluid and evaporated milk.

Production plans should be implemented by a system of subsidies and bonuses on crops and livestock products, the production of which is to be favored. Too rapid reconstitution of herds would put considerable strain on the grain supplies; it may therefore become necessary to limit livestock numbers on farms by means of maximum quotas.

Appendix I. THE ADMINISTRATION OF VARIOUS IMPORTANT COMMODITIES

A. Cereals

1. Structure of Office. France's first experiment in planned agricultural economy was the establishment in 1936 of the National Joint Trade Wheat Office (Office national interprofessionnel du blé = ONIB). Under the Vichy authorities, the organization of the office and its dependencies was integrated in the authoritarian economy and its activities extended to the "secondary cereals" (rye, oats, barley, corn, etc.). The office was renamed National Joint Trade Office for Cereals (Office national interprofessionnel des céréales = ONIC) and placed under the authority of the Minister for Agriculture and Food Supplies. It is administered by a president and an administrative committee (comité de gestion) on which the producers have one more vote (six) than dealers and processors together. No administrative units exist on the regional level. In the departments, the central organization is assisted and its decisions are carried out by departmental committees for cereals which are composed much like the administrative committee of the central office.

2. Functions. The administration of cereals by the ONIC distinguishes between wheat, rye, and all other secondary cereals. It has complete control over production, allocation, and distribution. In January 1942 the president of the ONIC, by special legislation, was even freed of obtaining previous ministerial approval for measures taken to regulate the market and assure the bread supply of the nation.

3. Flow of Wheat. The administration of wheat is still

based on the legislation of 1936-37. There has been no systematic attempt, by the Pétain regime, to adapt the legislation concerning this most important commodity to the new situation. Rather it has proceeded by makeshift methods. Each producer of wheat sells his crop at a fixed price to a warehouse pool (organisme stockeur), i.e. either to a wheat cooperative of which he is a member, or to a wheat dealer registered with the departmental wheat committee. A producer can deal with one warehouse only, and this warehouse is obliged to take his delivery quota or any surpluses that he may deliver voluntarily. During the last year all normal schedules for wheat deliveries as determined by the legislation of 1936-37 were abrogated and premiums were offered for early deliveries. For the campaign of 1942-43, the ONIC decided that each producer, within a week after each threshing operation, had to deliver his entire wheat crop (excluding only seed requirements and self-supplier's rations) to the warehouse pool to which he was attached until his delivery quota was fulfilled.

4. Flow of Rye. The rye market was organized in September 1940. Its administration follows closely that of wheat.

5. Flow of Secondary Cereals. The other "secondary cereals," however, were subjected to more systematic treatment. Each year prior to the beginning of harvesting operations, the National Cereals Office estimates the crop and notifies the departmental committees of the delivery quotas imposed upon their departments.

The departmental committees distribute the quotas among the communities, and the mayors or syndics among the individual farmers. Each producer is compelled to sell his entire crop to the same warehouse pool (organisme stockeur) which sees to it that the producers fulfill their obligations. These warehouses are the only enterprises entitled to buy directly from the producers (except for sales between producers in the same or adjacent communities), and consequently they are subject to very strict control. They must be either wheat cooperatives or grain merchants registered with the departmental committees. New wheat cooperatives must obtain the approval of the departmental committees. The ONIC is the only food board not to require trade licenses. Grain merchants, however, who want to have their business recognized as warehouse pools must prove that it fulfills certain minimum requirements as to turnover and wholesale character. Industrial and agricultural users of these "secondary cereals" are required to buy exclusively from the warehouses. Available supplies are allocated between agricultural use and processing and between different branches of processing by the Minister for Agriculture and Food Supplies. Under the authority of the National Joint Trade Office for Cereals, a National Allocator (répartiteur national) arranges for the monthly supplies to be made available on the basis of the quotas determined by the Minister. No secondary cereals may leave the warehouses without a delivery order (ordre de livraison) emanating either from the National Allocator or from the departmental cereals committees if the National Allocator delegates his powers to them.

6. Crop of 1943-44. For the campaign of 1943-1944 the distinction between wheat, rye, and other "secondary cereals" is not maintained. A law of 12 July 1943 concerning the organization of the cereal market for the campaign 1943-44

envisages crop estimates to be undertaken from the cantonal up to the national level. It also provides for the establishment, prior to 15 July 1943, of collection zones (zones d'action) to be assigned to each warehouse pool in order to save transport facilities and to control deliveries. This may constitute a threat to cooperatives; a farmer is not necessarily assigned to the cooperative of which he is a member but to the nearest warehouse pool.

7. Flour Mills. Information on the organization of the milling industry is incomplete. Since December 1941 there exists a Milling Group (groupement professionnel de la meunerie) with powers normally granted to organizing committees. Its functions are exercised by a directing committee (comité directeur) of seven members appointed by the Minister for Agriculture and Food Supply. During the present emergency the production program for the industry is drawn up by the National Joint Trade Office for Cereals which allocates cereals to the various mills. The organization of the flow of flour from the mills to the bakeries seems to be in the hands of departmental offices for flour distribution which are subordinate to the National Joint Trade Office for Cereals. They superintend milling operations, assign each baker to a miller who is to supply him, and issue to the bakers vouchers for fresh supplies of flour. Rationing takes care of the flow from bakeries and flour wholesalers to consumers. The Black Market in bread, unlike that in other commodities seems to operate largely on the basis of forged ration tickets.

B. Meat

1. Structure of Committee. Governmental control over the meat market started soon after the Fall of France. In October

1940 a National Bureau for the Allocation of Livestock, Meat, and Derived Products (Bureau national de répartition du bétail, de la viande et des produits dérivés) was set up under the Secretary of State for Supplies. In 1941 it was replaced by the National Joint Trade Committee for Meat (Comité national interprofessionnel de la viande = CNIV) which is now functioning under a law of 27 September 1941. It is subordinated to the Minister for Agriculture and Food Supplies and controlled by a governmental commissioner. It is administered by a general director and an administration committee consisting of ten representatives of meat producers and nine from industry and trade combined. In addition, there exists an advisory commission of seventy-three members, divided into three sections for producers, processors, and meat experts respectively. In the departments there are functioning either departmental purchasing and allocation groups for meat (groupements départementaux d'achat et de répartition des viandes) or the meat sections of general purchasing and allocation groups (sections "viandes" des groupements d'achat et de répartition), In addition departmental estimating committees (comités d'evaluation) keep a constant check on the livestock. In the cantons there are special purchasing commissions for meat.

2. Delivery Quotas. Every month or every three months, the Minister for Agriculture and Supplies, the general director of the CNIV, and the director of agricultural production at the Ministry assign livestock delivery quotas to the departments. Within each department the quota is subdivided among the cantons by the departmental services of the Ministry for Agriculture and Food Supplies.

3. Allocation. Every producer intending to sell an animal has to apply to the departmental purchasing and allocation groups for a sales permit (autorisation de vente) during the third week of the month preceding the month of sale. Any subsequent sales of the animal down to the slaughter stage require the transfer of this sales permit from seller to buyer. Retailers ordinarily acquire title to livestock before it is slaughtered. Within each department, retailers and processors are given slaughter permits (bons d'abatage du bétail) by the departmental purchasing and allocation groups. No department can issue slaughter permits in excess of the aggregate quantity of meat to which it is entitled on the basis of legal rations. All slaughtering is done at municipal slaughterhouses or at slaughterhouses attached to processing establishments. Private slaughterhouses are forbidden. Any slaughter performed at either type of slaughterhouse must be accompanied by surrender of both the sales permit and the slaughter permit to the officials of the municipal establishment. It is likewise at the slaughter stage that the final control of meat consumption is effected; retailers, wholesalers, or processors have to prove by ration titles in their hands that the livestock slaughtered for them has been turned over to legal consumption.

Meat deficit departments are assigned by the National Committee either to a surplus department or to a livestock market in one of the large consumption centers where wholesalers and processors can supply themselves. The cities of Marseille, Toulon, and Nice are assigned meat producing departments for their supply. It is at the wholesale stage that the control of meats through the flowback of ration tickets ceases. Each week the departmental purchasing and allocation group allocates available meat supplies on the wholesale markets on the basis of ration tickets collected by each wholesaler and each day they distribute meat purchasing permits (bons d'achat) among the retailers. These allocations are necessitated by the fact that weekly or daily meat supplies often are insufficient to satisfy legal rations and that therefore the simple flowback of ration coupons cannot be relied upon to assure equitable distribution.

C. Fresh Fruits and Vegetables

In December 1940, the administration of fruits and vegetables was entrusted to a National Allocation Bureau for Fruits, Vegetables, and Derived Products (Bureau national de répartition des fruits, légumes et produits dérivés). In December of the following year, it was transformed into a Central Supply Committee for Fruits and Vegetables (Comité central de ravitaillement en fruits et légumes).

1. Structure of Committee. The president of this Committee represents the fruit and vegetable trade, the assistant president is a representative of the producers, and among the other members, processors, dealers, and consumers together will probably have more votes than producers. The Committee has the usual powers of any central supply committee (above p. 91), especially it may grant, refuse, or withdraw trade licenses, in the instance of seven different types. Departmental Delegates for Fruits and Vegetables, assisted by departmental advisory committees, function on the departmental level.

2. Delivery Quotas. The Ministry assigns each region a delivery quota. This quota is subdivided into smaller

geographical units by the regional prefect, then by the departmental prefect, and finally by the syndic of the local syndicate. Peasants can appeal against the syndic's decision to an arbitration committee (commission d'arbitrage).

3. Collection System 1942-43. During the winter of 1942-43 all winter vegetables had to be collected by producers, cooperatives, dealers, or wholesalers licensed to ship the collected products to the centers of consumption. All these collectors are obligatory members of a special departmental collection group, the president of which can assign collection quotas or collection zones to each member. In each of the large consumption centers, a special local group of receiving dealers is organized which controls all its members. All shipments must be addressed to the president of this group, who after receipt proceeds to distribute the shipments to the receiving merchants. If supplies are insufficient for all retailers to be served by one wholesaler or all registered customers by one retailer, applicants are served in rotation. It is possible that the same scheme is being used again during the winter 1943-44.

4. Allocation Scheme. By a law of 25 June 1943, the large centers of consumption called "national priority centers" (centres nationaux prioritaires) received priority over "secondary consumption centers," as well as over any other allocation of fruits and vegetables (such as canning, etc.). The produce of certain departments is reserved exclusively for these "national priority centers." In these producer departments, the Central Supply Committee for Fruits and Vegetables establishes one or several collection groups (groupement professionnel de collecte), with which all

shippers of fruits and vegetables in its zone have to register. Only members of the group can collect on the farms, ship, or sell fruits and vegetables. A separate priority program (plan de priorité) is drawn up every two weeks by the Central Supply Committee for Fruits and Vegetables. The delivery quotas imposed upon the departments are subdivided among the collection groups by the Departmental Delegate of the Central Supply Committee. If the priority program does not exhaust available resources, secondary consumption centers are provided for in a separate normal program (plan normal).

The law of 25 June 1943 further prohibits a practice that had taken on considerable proportions. Urban establishments, for instance, factories, charity institutions, etc., which comprised a large number of persons, sent out agents to producer regions who bought up large supplies of fruits and vegetables at higher prices than those offered by regular channels. Henceforth such collectivités will no longer be able to buy directly from the producer but will have to address themselves to wholesalers in the cities where they are located.

D. Potatoes[1]

1. Structure. In October 1940 the potato market was subjected to the control of a National Allocation Bureau for Potatoes. An arrêté of 14 December 1941 transformed it into a Central Supply Committee for Potatoes, Onions, Garlic, Legumes, and Derived Products (Comité central de

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[1] The administration of potatoes follows a somewhat special pattern governed by a law of 20 February 1942 concerning the marketing (commercialisation) of certain agricultural products required for the food supply of the country. The Minister for Agriculture and Food Supply may declare this law applicable to other commodities as well, but so far potatoes seem to be the only commodity to be governed by it.

ravitaillement en pommes de terre, oignons, aulx, légumes secs et produits dérivés). On the committee the producers have one representative only while there are three representatives of the trade, one of industry, and one of the general public. On the departmental level there operate Departmental Delegates assisted by Advisory Committees. In the trade five different types of trade licenses are granted.

2. Delivery Quotas. The governmental machinery classifies the regions of France with regard to potatoes as surplus regions, balanced regions, or deficit regions. The former have to produce, apart from their own requirements, a quota of the supplies needed for the deficit regions. The General Commissioner for Agriculture Resources (see Chart 2) determines the regional delivery quotas to be imposed. These are subdivided among the departments by the regional prefects assisted by an advisory committee, and among cantons and committees by the departmental prefect assisted by his advisory committee. Within each community the communal quotas are divided up among individuals by the local representative of the Corporative Organization of Agriculture, the syndic. Each producer who accepts by writing the quota imposed upon him is rewarded by a premium of twenty-five francs per quintal. Those who do not accept have to deliver the potatoes just the same.

3. Collection. Producers are free to choose their potato collectors among either the approved local cooperatives (of whom each community must have at least two); this choice must be made prior to 31 March of each year and remains valid for the entire campaign. The Central Supply Committee plans the removal of the potatoes not needed in the region itself, and the regional and departmental delegates apply this plan

to their districts.

All wholesale transports of potatoes (entire wagons, trucks loaded with at least five tons, water transports) must be accompanied by a control sheet (fiche de contrôle) issued by the Central Supply Committee. Non-profit collectivités (charitable or religious institutions, canteens, cooperatives) can obtain transportation permits on behalf of their members.

Urban consumers are given the opportunity of obtaining a winter's supply of potatoes directly from a producer. They may arrange with a farmer (who either has fulfilled his quota or has given a written undertaking to deliver it) to send them either 50 or 100 kilograms of potatoes. For this purpose the urban consumer has to obtain from his town hall a transportation permit (autorisation de transport) in exchange for the potato ration card. He is supposed to send his permit to the delegate of the Central Supply Committee for Potatoes, etc. in the farmer's department. The Departmental Delegate then makes arrangements for the transportation of the potatoes.

On 17 November 1943 the Petit Parisien published figures on request, for 50- or 100-kilogram lots of potatoes:

Year	Number of requests	Number of potato cards exchanged	Tonnage
1942	205,000	429,000	36,000
1943	129,000	476,000	45,000

The newspaper goes on to point out that these figures show an average supply of almost 100 kilograms per ration card in 1943. Nearly nine-tenths of the population do not possess stocks of potatoes for the winter and depend upon regular urban supplies. The decrease in requests and the increase in the number of potato cards exchanged for transportation permits in 1943 is explained by the fact that in 1942 many families retained one or two ration cards for the regular urban distributions only to find that these latter were insufficient and that they could not use their cards.

Large firms, especially at Marseille collect ration cards and buy up potatoes for their employees at illegal prices, often with the tacit consent of the prefect. Groups of employees (collectivités) sometimes purchase direct from growers even merchandise that forms part of the latter's delivery quotas. In producer departments prefects may block the transportation of potatoes for individual families. Many of these sales are made at illegal prices, but farmers are seldom prosecuted on this account.

E. Dairy Products

1. Structure. The administration of dairy products is based on a law of 27 July 1940. This law provides for a Joint Trade Group for Dairy Products (groupement interprofessionnel des produits laitiers) in each department.

2. Functions. The functions of the departmental groups are all-inclusive. The members of the administrative committee direct and develop dairy production. In their function as organizing committees the groups allocate milk between the various types of processors -- butter producers, cheese producers, canners -- and trades. They organize the collection and transportation of dairy products. They order the stockpiling and play an important role in price control. They decide whether a person is acceptable as a dealer in, or processor of, dairy products and may be granted a trade license (carte professionnelle) by the prefect. Above the departmental groups, there is a Central Committee of the Joint Trade Group for Dairy Products, under the authority

of the Minister for Agriculture and Food Supply. A decree of 15 November 1940 established as a part of the Central Committee an Executive Bureau and an Advisory Committee with five sections -- milk, butter, cheese, derived products, and agricultural labor. The Executive Bureau exercises not only the powers of the Central Committee but also those of a national allocation bureau. Equal representation of producers on the one hand and of dealers and processors on the other, on the Executive Bureau as well as on the five sections of the Advisory Committee, was established as the guiding principle. The Central Committee is charged with coordinating the actions of the departmental groups and with allocating dairy products from surplus departments among the deficit departments. Finally, the Central Committee issues regulations which after approval by the Ministry become obligatory.

3. Collection. The legal dairy trade is closely controlled by the departmental groups. Nobody is supposed to deal in dairy products unless he obtains a trade license (carte professionnelle). There are twenty-three specialized types of trade licenses in the dairy business. To save transportation facilities and to reduce the price of dairy products the presidents of the departmental groups assign collection zones (zone de ramassage or d'approvisionnement) to all agricultural cooperatives, processors, or dealers who collect milk or cream from the producers. They may even establish collection centers or skimming centers within a collection zone. The producers in this zone have to deliver minimum quotas per cow to the collectors to which they are assigned, and the collectors have to see to it that all producers in the zone deliver the prescribed amounts;

otherwise he has to notify the administrative committees of the departmental Joint Trade Group for Dairy Products.

In general, the administration is anxious to enforce a maximum of milk deliveries and to decrease butter and cheese production on the farms. The farmers are supposed to bring all cheese and butter produced on their farm and not covered by self-suppliers' rations to local fairs and markets where normally only wholesalers are entitled to make purchases. Only in regions with a butter and cheese production so low that it does not exceed local requirements can consumers buy directly at fairs and markets. In that case they must deliver their ration tickets to the market or municipal authorities.

4. Allocation of Supplies. The collectors of milk -- agricultural cooperatives, processors, and dealers -- dispatch their products to wholesalers in the large centers of consumption. In exchange the wholesalers have to mail to the collectors delivery permits (bons de livraison) allocated to them by the Administrative Committee of their departmental Joint Trade Group for Dairy Products on the basis of ration tickets collected by them from the retailers. Milk collectors acting for an urban dairy may grant priority to delivery permits allocated to their firm.

Distribution of dairy products comes in for a great deal of criticism by the French press. The Central Committee of the Joint Trade Group for Dairy Products is often accused of discriminating in its allocations against small retailers in favor of large processors and chain stores which have collectors and dairies of their own. In many big cities, normal consumers receive no milk, not even skimmed. In the

Lyon region, the Regional Prefect announced a reduction of legal butter rations beginning 21 December 1943. Late in June 1943 the Prefect of Marseille divided holders of milk cards into the following categories: infants up to three years of age, children aged three to six, children aged six to thirteen; certain sick people; pregnant and nursing women. Daily announcements inform the public which of the following three schemes will be used to distribute the day's supplies. Under the first scheme holders receive their full rations, normal consumers apparently being excluded under any circumstances. Under the second, holders will receive their full rations, except for pregnant and nursing women and children between three and six years old who will receive reduced rations. Under the third system, children from three to six years old receive no milk at all.

Appendix II: THE FOOD BOARDS OF VICHY FRANCE[1]

A. Joint Trade Groups (groupements interprofessionnels) or similar organizations are established for the following commodities:

- Cereals
- Meat
- Dairy products
- Vegetable oils of Metropolitan France
- Producers' goods (fertilizers, fodder, insecticides, etc.)
- Production and industries of sugar beets
- Seeds and seedlings
- Horses and mules
- Fruit used for cider and derived products
- Sheeps' milk
- Natural sweet branded wines and liquors
- Fresh water fish

B. National Allocation Bureaus (Bureaux nationaux de répartition) are still in operation for the following commodities:

- Bananas
- Grape juices
- Champagne wines
- Cognac wines and brandies
- Armagnac wines and brandies
- Rice

C. Central Supplies Committees (Comités centraux de ravitaillement) administer the following commodities:

- Preserves and canned sweet fruit
- Alimentary preserves
- Fruits and vegetables

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[1] This appendix is based on Didot-Bottin for 1942 and the Journal Officiel for 1942 and 1943.

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Materials and foodstuffs necessary for diets and alimentary pastes for children

Potatoes, onions, garlic, dried legumes and derived products

Poultry products

Chocolate and products derived from cocoa

Colonial products, various spices and their substitutes

Fish

Sugar

Coffee

Alimentary pastes

Fats

Salt

D. Groups for Imports and Allocation (Groupements d'importation et de répartition) or similar bodies exist for the following commodities:

Semolina

Fruits and vegetables

Dried fruits

Sea food

Grape juices

Rum

Poultry, rabbits, and game

Slaughter animals and meat

Work horses, slaughter horses, horsemeat

Oleaginous products

Barley and hops

Rice

Cocoa

Maize

Starch products

Sugar

Tea

Animal fats

Coffee

Sea fish

Bananas

Fresh fruits and vegetables

Potatoes

Wines

Preserves

Beans

Beer

E. Special Organizing Committees exist for the following food processing industries:

Distillery

Sugar production from sugar beets

Fodder

Ciders, cider brandies, apple juices, and concentrated apple musts

Starch products

Biscuit production, pastry industry, dietary products, spiced breads, and similar products

Canned foods

Fruit and vegetable juices

Yeast industry and trade

Ice creams and sherbets

Brewery, malting and hops trade

Vegetable and animal fats

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1944 MAR 21 AM 9 37